







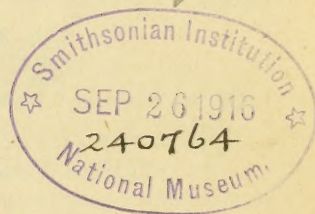
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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,

BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96.—97, 1911-12

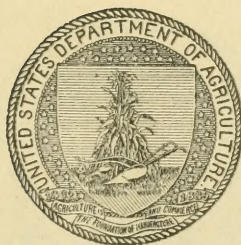
L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING
STORED PRODUCTS.

CONTENTS AND INDEX.



ISSUED SEPTEMBER 11, 1916.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1916.

ADDITIONAL COPIES

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING
STORED PRODUCTS.

I. A LIST OF INSECTS AFFECTING STORED CEREALS.
THE MEXICAN GRAIN BEETLE.
THE SIAMESE GRAIN BEETLE.

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, *In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.*

II. THE BROAD-NOSED GRAIN WEEVIL.
THE LONG-HEADED FLOUR BEETLE.

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, *In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.*

III. THE LESSER GRAIN-BORER
THE LARGER GRAIN-BORER.

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, *In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.*

IV. CARBON TETRACHLORID AS A SUBSTITUTE FOR CARBON
BISULPHID IN FUMIGATION AGAINST INSECTS.

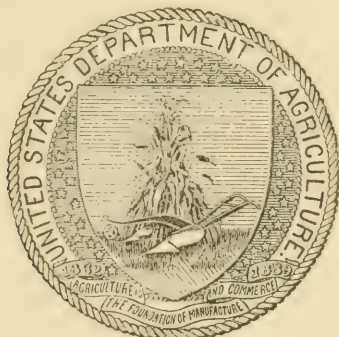
By F. H. CHITTENDEN, *In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations,*
and C. H. POPENOE, *Entomological Assistant.*

V. THE BROAD-BEAN WEEVIL.

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, *In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.*

VI. THE COWPEA WEEVIL.

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, *In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.*



BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY.

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TRUCK CROP AND STORED PRODUCT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

F. H. CHITTENDEN, *Entomologist in charge.*

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
A list of insects affecting stored cereals..... <i>F. H. Chittenden</i> ..	1
Introductory.....	1
Insects affecting stored cereals and cereal products.....	2
Cucujidae.....	2
Dermestidae.....	3
Other clavicorns.....	3
Bostrychidae.....	4
Ptinidae.....	4
Tenebrionidae.....	4
Rhynchophora.....	5
Tineina.....	6
Phycitidae.....	6
Other moths.....	7
Orthoptera.....	7
Neuropteroid insects.....	7
Acarina.....	7
The Mexican grain beetle (<i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i> Reitt.)..... <i>F. H. Chittenden</i> ..	8
Introductory.....	8
Description.....	9
Literature.....	10
Observed habits.....	11
Enemies.....	12
Bibliographic references.....	13
The Siamese grain beetle (<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i> Klug)..... <i>F. H. Chittenden</i> ..	14
Introductory.....	14
Description.....	15
Distribution.....	17
Habits.....	17
Bibliography.....	18
The broad-nosed grain weevil (<i>Caulophilus latinasus</i> Say).... <i>F. H. Chittenden</i> ..	19
Notes on occurrence in the United States.....	19
Descriptive.....	20
Distribution.....	22
Literature.....	22
Summary of life history and habits.....	23
Bibliographical list.....	23
The long-headed flour beetle (<i>Latheticus oryzae</i> Waterh.)..... <i>F. H. Chittenden</i> ..	25
Introductory.....	25
Descriptive.....	25
Foreign distribution.....	26
Occurrence in the United States.....	27
History and literature.....	27
Bibliographical list.....	28
The lesser grain-borer (<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i> Fab.)..... <i>F. H. Chittenden</i> ..	29
Introductory.....	29
Description of the species.....	30

The lesser grain-borer, etc.—Continued.	Page.
Distribution.....	31
Literature, known history, and habits.....	32
Office notes and correspondence.....	32
Biologic notes.....	35
Experiments with remedies.....	36
General conclusions.....	46
Bibliography.....	46
The larger grain-borer (<i>Dinoderus truncatus</i> Horn)..... F. H. Chittenden..	48
Introductory.....	48
Description.....	48
History and literature.....	50
Office experiments.....	50
Bibliography.....	52
Carbon tetrachlorid as a substitute for carbon bisulphid in fumigation against insects..... F. H. Chittenden and C. H. Popenoe..	53
Introduction.....	53
Experiments at Washington, D. C.....	54
Experiments at Baltimore, Md.....	55
Comparative cost of carbon bisulphid and carbon tetrachlorid.....	56
Conclusions.....	57
The broad-bean weevil (<i>Larid rufimana</i> Boh.)..... F. H. Chittenden..	59
Introductory.....	59
Description.....	59
Distribution.....	62
Records of occurrence.....	62
Notes on occurrence in California, by Wm. B. Parker, agent.....	64
Alleged poisonous nature of the weevil.....	66
Germination of seed.....	68
Summary of nature of attack and life history.....	70
Literature and history.....	72
Natural enemies.....	72
Experiments with remedies, by Wm. B. Parker, agent.....	74
Methods of control.....	75
Bibliography.....	80
The cowpea weevil (<i>Pachymerus chinensis</i> L.)..... F. H. Chittenden..	83
Introductory.....	83
Descriptive.....	83
Synonymy.....	85
Distribution.....	85
Life history and habits.....	86
Oviposition.....	86
Life-cycle periods.....	87
Number of generations.....	88
Longevity of adults.....	89
Food plants.....	89
The point of exit of the beetle from the seed.....	89
Susceptibility of different varieties of cowpea.....	90
Summary of life history.....	90
Literature.....	91
Methods of control.....	92
Bibliography.....	93
Index.....	95

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	PLATE.	Page.
PLATE I. Blackeye cowpeas infested by the cowpea weevil (<i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>), showing eggs and exit holes.....		86
TEXT FIGURES.		
FIG. 1. The Mexican grain beetle (<i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i>): Adult, larva, pupa, details.....		8
2. The Siamese grain beetle (<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>): Adult, larva, pupa, details.....		14
3. The broad-nosed grain weevil (<i>Caulophilus latinasus</i>): Adult and details.....		19
4. The broad-nosed grain weevil: Work in seed of avocado (<i>Persea gratissima</i>).....		20
5. The long-headed flour beetle (<i>Latheticus oryzae</i>): Adult.....		26
6. <i>Latheticus prosopis</i> : Adult.....		26
7. The lesser grain-borer (<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>): Adult.....		30
8. Section of horse collar showing holes bored by the lesser grain-borer...		34
9. The larger grain-borer (<i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>): Adult, larva, pupa, details.....		50
10. The larger grain-borer: Kernel of corn showing characteristic work of adult, or beetle.....		51
11. The broad-bean weevil (<i>Laria rufimana</i>): Adult, or beetle.....		60
12. The pea weevil (<i>Laria pisorum</i>): Beetle, larva, and pupa.....		60
13. The broad-bean weevil: Photomicrograph of egg.....		61
14. The broad-bean weevil: Egg.....		61
15. The broad-bean weevil: Apical crest of head of postembryonic larva..		61
16. Broad beans infested by the broad-bean weevil, showing empty exit holes of beetles, closed exit holes, and open exit holes in which beetles are still present.....		70
17. Broad beans split to show ravages made by larvæ of the broad-bean weevil above, and by larvæ and adults below, the latter leaving large pupal cases at the ends of the beans.....		71
18. Broad bean cut in half to show, at top on left, pupal cell of the broad-bean weevil; at right, cell containing predaceous mite (<i>Pediculoides ventricosus</i>).....		73
19. <i>Pediculoides ventricosus</i> : Gravid female.....		73
20. Fumigator used for stored products infested by insects.....		79
21. The cowpea weevil (<i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>): Male beetle, egg, larva, and details.....		84

ERRATA.

- Page 30, line 19 from bottom, for *pusillus* read *pusillum*.
Page 87, line 22 from bottom, for *larv* read *larvæ*.

DIV. INSECTS.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96, Part I.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

A LIST OF INSECTS AFFECTING STORED CEREALS. THE MEXICAN GRAIN BEETLE. THE SIAMESE GRAIN BEETLE.

BY

F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

ISSUED MARCH 25, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1911.

BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY.

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TRUCK CROP AND STORED PRODUCT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
A list of insects affecting stored cereals	1
Introductory.....	1
Insects affecting stored cereals and cereal products.....	2
Cucujidæ.....	2
Dermestidæ.....	3
Other clavicorns.....	3
Bostrychidæ.....	4
Ptinidæ.....	4
Tenebrionidæ.....	4
Rhynchophora.....	5
Tineina.....	6
Phycitidæ.....	6
Other moths.....	7
Orthoptera.....	7
Neuropteroid insects.....	7
Acarina.....	7
The Mexican grain beetle (<i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i> Reitt.).....	8
Introductory.....	8
Description.....	9
The adult.....	9
The egg.....	9
The larva.....	10
The pupa.....	10
Literature.....	10
Observed habits.....	11
Enemies.....	12
Bibliographic references.....	13
The Siamese grain beetle (<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i> Klug).....	14
Introductory.....	14
Description.....	15
The adult.....	15
The larva.....	16
The pupa.....	17
Distribution.....	17
Habits.....	17
Bibliography.....	18

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
FIG. 1. The Mexican grain beetle (<i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i>): Adult, larva, pupa, details	8
2. The Siamese grain beetle (<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>): Adult, larva, pupa, details	14

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

A LIST OF INSECTS AFFECTING STORED CEREALS.

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTORY.

Lists of the insects that attack various cultivated crops are being published from time to time and republished with additional names until we have, of the various species that affect certain crops, some very complete lists. A notable example is the late Dr. J. A. Lintner's list of injurious apple-tree insects, which numbers 356 species.^a A preliminary list published by the same writer in 1882 contained only 176 species, less than half the number known to affect the apple 14 years later. Similar lists, more or less incomplete, but furnishing a basis for future additions, have been published of insects that affect the strawberry, the grapevine, the blackberry, the corn plant, the sugar beet, etc. Of many crops, however, there are no better published lists than those given in the catalogue of the exhibits in economic entomology at the World's Columbian Exposition issued in 1893 as Bulletin No. 31 (old series) of this bureau and in other similar exhibition catalogues (Bulletins 47, 48, and 53, new series) which have followed.

At the time the writer undertook the investigation of insects affecting stored products, which began with the inspection of cereal and other seeds exhibited at the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago in 1893, his knowledge—in truth it might be said our knowledge—of these insects was confined to the species exhibited by this bureau at the exposition and catalogued in Bulletin No. 31 (old series). The list of the insects injuring stored corn numbered 20. Of these, two species, *Silvanus cassiæ* Reiche and *Dinoderus punctatus* Say, were incorrectly determined, and a third, *Calandra remotepunctata* Gyll., is a synonym, leaving only 17 species properly named.

In his first gropings for knowledge the writer was gravely informed by certain fellow entomologists of riper experience than himself that everything was well known, that nothing new would be found, and

^a LINTNER, J. A.—List of Injurious Apple-tree Insects. <11th Rep. Ins. N. Y. for 1895, pp. 263-272, 1896.

that the subject possessed no interest. In refutation of these statements it may be said that at the time they were made, in 1893, very little was positively known of the life histories of even our commonest granary insects and that the species themselves were not well known. Since that time many new forms have been added to our list, and many new facts concerning their habits, injuries, distribution, etc., have developed—all of sufficient interest to consume a considerable portion of the writer's time and energy now and perhaps for some years to come.

Inspection of the exhibits of cereal and other seeds at the World's Fair in Chicago, just mentioned, was the means by which many species, hitherto unknown or of little understood habits and distribution, became known, and notes made on their occurrence there and in other localities have added much to our knowledge concerning them. Visits during subsequent years, made by the writer and by agents and assistants, to flour mills, bakeries, and warehouses, and to feed and other stores have added much more to our already acquired information, and the correspondence of the bureau has contributed other facts.

The list which follows was prepared originally for the writer's personal use in the work of investigating insects of this class, but as the comprehensive work contemplated, on insects that affect stored cereals, will not be completed for some time, it has been thought advisable for the benefit of others working along similar lines to publish it now, in connection with and as an introduction to other papers which will follow:

INSECTS AFFECTING STORED CEREALS AND CEREAL PRODUCTS.

CUCUJIDÆ.

1. *Silvanus surinamensis* L.....Chittenden: Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept.
Silvanus frumentarius Fab. Agr., p. 16, 1897.
Saw-toothed grain beetle. Infests all cereals, dried fruits, etc.
A general feeder.
2. *Silvanus bicornis* Er.....Chittenden: Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S.
Dept. Agr., pp. 10-11, 1897.
Found in wheat granaries and dried figs.
3. *Silvanus mercator* Fauv.....Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent. U. S. Dept. Agr.,
Merchant grain beetle. p. 12, 1897.
Habits similar to *S. surinamensis*.
4. *Cathartus gemellatus* Duv.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 17,
Silvanus cassiæ auct. 1897.
Square-necked grain beetle. Infests corn and wheat.
5. *Cathartus advena* Waltl.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 17,
Silvanus advena Waltl. 1897.
Foreign grain beetle. Attacks grain, meal, and flour; does not
develop to any extent in material kept
dry and clean.

6. *Læmophilæus minutus* Oliv.....Occurs commonly in cereals, but probably
Læmophilæus pusillus Sch. in the main predaceous and scavenging.
Flat grain beetle.
7. *Læmophilæus ferrugineus* Steph....Curtis: Farm Insects, p. 330, 1860.
Rust-red grain beetle. Recorded to occur in granaries in Europe.
8. *Læmophilæus alternans* Er.....Bul. 2, o. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr.,
p. 32, 1883.
Infesting a mill. (This is probably an
erroneous determination=*minutus*?)
9. *Læmotmetus rhizophagoides* Walk.Reitter: Harold's Coleop. Hefte, vol. 15,
Læmotmetus ferrugineus Gerst. p. 38, 1876.
Oryzæus cathartoides Reitt. Arrow: Ent. Mo. Mag., vol. 40, pp. 35-36,
1904.
Found in stored rice at Berlin, Germany.

DERMESTIDÆ.

10. *Attagenus piceus* Oliv.....Chittenden: Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S.
Attagenus megatoma Fab. Dept. Agr., pp. 15-19, 1897.
Black carpet beetle. Lives on cereal and other seeds, and on
woolen goods and other animal material.
11. *Anthrenus verbasci* L.....Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr.,
Anthrenus varius L. p. 22, 1897.
Small cabinet beetle. Attacks wheat, flour, etc. A cabinet pest.
12. *Trogoderma tarsale* Melsh.....Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr.,
Larger cabinet beetle. pp. 19-21, 1897.
Attacks wheat, seeds, nuts, and animal sub-
stances in store. It is also a cabinet
pest.
13. *Trogoderma ornatum* Say.....Kelliecott: Proc. Columbus Hort. Soc., vol.
Ornate cabinet beetle. 9, p. 12, 1894.
Living on pop corn.
14. *Æthriostoma undulata* Motsch.....Cotes: Indian Museum Notes, vol. 3, p. 119,
1894.
Destructive to wheat.

OTHER CLAVICORNS.

15. *Tenebroides mauritanicus* L.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 18,
Trogosita mauritanica L. 1897.
Cadelle. In various cereal and other seeds.
16. *Lophocateres pusillus* Klug.....Chittenden: Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S.
Ostoma pusillum Klug. Dept. Agr., vol. 6, p. 219, 1894.
17. *Typhcea fumata* L.....Well known as occurring in stored products,
but prefers decomposing material.
18. *Pharaxonotha kirschi* Reitt.....Chittenden: Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S.
Thallisella conradti Gorh. Dept. Agr., vol. 7, p. 327, 1895.
Mexican grain beetle. In corn meal and edible tubers.
19. *Carpophilus dimidiatus* Fab.....Chittenden: Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S.
Dept. Agr., vol. 6, p. 219, 1894.
Breeds in corn meal.
- 19a. *Carpophilus pallipennis* Say.....Weed, H. E.: Bul. 17, Miss. Agr. Exp. Stat.,
Corn sap-beetle. p. 9, 1891.
Found in corn throughout the winter when
stored.

BOSTRYCHIDÆ.

20. **Dinoderus truncatus** Horn..... Chittenden: Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., vol. 7, p. 327, 1895.
Larger grain borer.
Breeds in corn and edible tubers.
21. **Rhizopertha dominica** Fab..... Injurious to cereals in kernel; breeds in corn, rice, wheat, and in other hard substances containing starch.
Dinoderus dominica Fab.
Dinoderus pusillus Fab.
Rhizopertha pusilla Fab.
Lesser grain borer.

PTINIDÆ.

22. **Ptinus fur** L..... Bul. 4, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 127, 1899.
White-marked spider beetle.
Injurious to flour, crackers, seeds, etc.
23. **Ptinus brunneus** Dufts..... Occurs in same situations as the above, and as its habits are practically identical it probably feeds also on cereals.
24. **Niptus hololeucus** Fald..... Fitch (Powers): The Entomologist, vol. 12, p. 46, 1879.
In "corn meal;" common in granaries in Europe.
25. **Gibbium psyllodes** Czern..... Schwarz (unpublished).
Gibbium scotias Fab.
In stale bread in a bakery at Washington, D. C.; in storehouses, etc.
26. **Sitodrepa panicea** L..... Bul. 4, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 124-126, 1899.
Anobium paniceum L.
Drug-store beetle.
A general feeder.
27. **Lasioderma serricorne** Fab..... Bul. 4, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 126, 1899.
Lasioderma testaceum Dufts.
Cigarette beetle.
Habits similar to above; observed to breed in rice, yeast cakes, fish food, etc.
28. **Catorama punctulata** Lec..... Quaintance: Bul. 36, Fla. Agr. Exp. Sta., pp. 381-382, 1896.
In corn, corn meal, flour, etc.
29. **Catorama zeæ** Waterh..... Trans. Ent. Soc. London, vol. 5, Proceedings, p. lxxviii, 1847-1849.
Tricorynus zeæ Waterh.
"Attacking the grain of the common maize."

TENEBRIONIDÆ.

30. **Tenebrio molitor** L..... Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 14-15, 1897.
Yellow mealworm.
Injurious to ground cereals, especially when stale.
31. **Tenebrio obscurus** Fab..... Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 15, 1897.
Dark mealworm.
Infests ground cereals.
32. **Tenebrio tenebrioides** Beauv..... Unpublished.
33. **Tribolium confusum** Duv..... Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 11-12, 1897.
Tribolium ferrugineum auct.
Confused flour beetle.
A general feeder, injurious to cereals in every form.

34. **Tribolium navale** Fab.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp.
Tribolium ferrugineum Fab: 12-13, 1897.
 Rust-red flour beetle. Habits like preceding.
35. **Tribolium madens** Charp.....Johnson: Amer. Miller, Jan. 1, 1896, p. 32.
 Black flour beetle. Habits similar to two preceding.
36. **Gnathocerus cornutus** Fab.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 13,
Echocerus cornutus Fab. 1897.
 Broad-horned flour beetle. Infests ground cereals.
37. **Gnathocerus (Echocerus) maxil-**
losus Fab.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 13,
 Slender-horned flour beetle. 1897.
 Infests corn and corn meal.
38. **Cænocorse ratzeburgi** Wissm.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 13,
Palorus ratzeburgi Wissm. 1897.
 Small-eyed flour beetle. Infests cereals, whole and ground.
39. **Cænocorse subdepressa** Woll.....Chittenden: Ent. News, vol. 7, p. 138,
Palorus subdepressus Woll. 1896.
 Depressed flour beetle. Lives in granaries in Europe and South
 America and in cereals in the United
 States.
40. **Latheticus oryzæ** Waterh.....Waterhouse: Ann. & Mag. Nat. Hist.,
Lyphia striolatus Fairm. vol. 5, pp. 147-148, Feb., 1880.
 Short-horned flour beetle. Breeds in rice, wheat, and barley.
41. **Sitophagus solieri** Muls.
Sitophagus hololeptoides Lap.
42. **Alphitobius diaperinus** Panz.....Food habits similar to those of *Tenebrio*;
 Lesser mealworm. prefers spoiled material.
43. **Alphitobius piceus** Oliv.....There are brief notes on occurrence in
 grain.
44. **Alphitophagus bifasciatus** Say.....Commonly occurs in spoiled cereals, but
Phylethus bifasciatus Say. does not injure sound material.
Alphitophagus 4-pustulatus Steph.

RHYNCHOPHORA.

45. **Calandra granaria** L.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 4-5,
Sitophilus granarius L. 1897.
Calandra remotepunctata Gyll. Breeds in all cereals in the kernel, except,
 Granary weevil. perhaps, oats and unhulled rice, and in
 some prepared cereals, etc.
46. **Calandra oryza** L.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 5-6,
Sitophilus oryzæ L. 1897.
 Rice weevil. Infests all cereals in kernel.
47. **Caulophilus latinasus** Say.....Chittenden: Tech. Ser. 4, Div. Ent., U. S.
 Broad-nosed grain weevil. Dept. Agr., pp. 29-30, 1896.
 In corn, chick-peas, ginger, etc.
48. **Brachytarsus alternatus** Say.....Quaintance: Bul. 36, Fla. Agr. Exp. Sta.,
 pp. 380-381, 1896.
 Larva and adult injurious to stored corn,
 cowpeas, and "English peas."
49. **Brachytarsus variegatus** Say.....Lintner: 2d Rep. Ins. N. Y., pp. 139-141,
 1885.
 Adult exceptionally eats kernels of wheat
 in bin.

50. *Rhyncolus oryzae* Gyll.....Schönherr: Genera et Species Curculionidum, p. 1075, 1837.
Described from specimens found between grains of rice in store at Stockholm.

TINEINA.

51. *Sitotroga cerealella* Oliv.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 6-7, 1897.
Gelechia cerealella Oliv.
Angoumois grain moth. Infests all cereals in kernel.
52. *Tinea granella* L.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 7, 1897; also Bull. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 31-35, 1897.
53. *Tinea biselliella* Hum.....Chittenden: Tech. Ser. 4, Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 30, 1896.
Reared from stored wheat and corn, but doubtful if it breeds in cereals.
54. *Tinea pallescentella* Haw.....Stainton: Entomologist's Annual, 1857, p. 122.
"The larva is granivorous."
55. *Tinea misella* Zell.....Gregson: Entomologist's Annual, 1857, p. 121.
Reared "from unthrashed wheat."
56. *Batrachedra rileyi* Wals.....Chittenden: Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 32-33, 1897.
Attacks corn in field and said to live in it in store.
57. *Acompsia pseudospretella* Stain....Gregson: See Butler's "Our Household Insects," p. 106, 1896.
Ecophora pseudospretella Stain.
Injurious to rice, brooms, seeds, etc.

PHYCITIDÆ.

58. *Plodia interpunctella* Hübner.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 9-10, 1897.
Ephestia zea Fitch.
Indian-meal moth. Attacks all cereals; a general feeder.
59. *Ephestia kuehniella* Zell.....Chittenden: Cir. 112, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., 1910.
Mediterranean flour moth. Infests all cereals, but most injurious to flour.
60. *Ephestia cautella* Walk.....Chittenden: Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 7, 1897.
Ephestia cahiritella Zell.
Ephestia passulella Barr.
Fig moth. Reared from corn meal, dried fruits, seeds, nuts, etc.
61. *Ephestia ficulella* Barr.....Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., vol. 5, pp. 141, 350, 1893; Chittenden: Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., 1897.
Ephestia desuetella Walk.
In oatmeal at Kingston, Jamaica; recorded also from Galveston, Tex.
62. *Ephestia elutella* Hübner.....Bul. 8, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 9, 1897.

OTHER MOTHS.

63. *Pyralis farinalis* L.....Farmers' Bul. 45, U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 10-11, 1897.
Asopia farinalis L.
 Meal snout-moth. Attacks cereals, hay, etc., but not known to injure material that is kept quite clean and dry.
64. *Melissoblaptes gularis* Zell.....Jenner, J. H. A.: The Entomologist, vol. 25, p. 286, 1892.
 In "polished Japan rice" in London.

ORTHOPTERA.

(Cockroaches.)

65. *Blatta orientalis* L.....Marlatt: Cir. 51, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 8, 9, 1908.
Periplaneta orientalis L.
Stylopyga orientalis L.
 Oriental cockroach.
66. *Blattella germanica* L.....Marlatt: Cir. 51, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 9, 10, 1908.
Ectobia germanica L.
Phyllodromia germanica L.
 German cockroach; croton bug.
67. *Panchlora surinamensis* L.....Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., vol. 5, pp. 201, 268, 1893.
 Surinam roach.

NEUROPTEROID INSECTS.

(Thysanura, Isoptera, Corrodentia.)

68. *Lepisma saccharina* L.....Marlatt: Cir. 49, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., 1902.
 Silverfish.
69. *Lepisma domestica* Pack.....Marlatt: Cir. 49, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., 1902.
 Fire brat.
70. *Termes flavipes* Koll.....Marlatt: Cir. 50, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., 1908.
Philoterme flavipes Koll.
 White ant.
71. *Troctes divinatoria* Fab.....Marlatt: Bul. 4, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 79-81, 1899.
Atropos divinatoria Fab.
 Book louse.
72. *Troctes corrodens* Heymons.....Heymons: Deutsch. ent. Zeitschr., 1909, pp. 452-455.

ACARINA.

(Mites.)

73. *Tyroglyphus farinæ* DeG.....Banks: Tech. Ser. 13, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 14, 1906.
Aleurobius farinæ DeG.
 Flour mite.
74. *Tyroglyphus siro* Gerv.....Lintner: 3d Rep. Inj. Ins. N. Y., pp. 130, 131, 1888.
 Cheese mite.
75. *Tyroglyphus longior* Gerv.....Banks: Tech. Ser. 13, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 14, 1906.
 Elevator mite.
 Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., vol. 1, p. 51.
76. *Tyroglyphus americanus* Bks.....Banks: Tech. Ser. 13, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 16, 1906.
 Mill mite.

THE MEXICAN GRAIN BEETLE.

(*Pharaxonotha kirschi* Reitt.)

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

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INTRODUCTORY.

Among grain-feeding insects which have not yet been permanently introduced into this country as pests, but which have come repeatedly under observation, is a clavicorn beetle, *Pharaxonotha kirschi* Reitt. (fig. 1). This was one of the living species observed by the writer infesting stored grain in the foreign exhibits at the World's Columbian Exposition and was more abundantly distributed throughout these exhibits toward the end of the fall of 1893. At the time of its

discovery it was practically unknown to American scientists, with the exception of Dr. George H. Horn.

The Bureau of Entomology has also to record two reports of the occurrence of this species in stored corn in Mexico, one dated 1902 and the other 1910, as follows:

December 3, 1902, Mr. A. L. Herrera, of the City of Mexico, sent a sample of stored corn from Tlaxiaco, State of Oaxaca, infested with this and other species of insects which have been previously identified with injury of this nature in Central America.

During the winter of 1910 complaints were made through Mr. Ed. Los McCue, of the Cafetal Carlota Co., Oaxaca, of injury by weevils to corn, and on February 26 the specimens in question reached this office. Upon examination the principal injury proved to be due to the rice weevil (*Calandra oryza* L.), while the square-necked grain beetle (*Cathartus gemellatus* Duv.) and the Mexican grain beetle were also

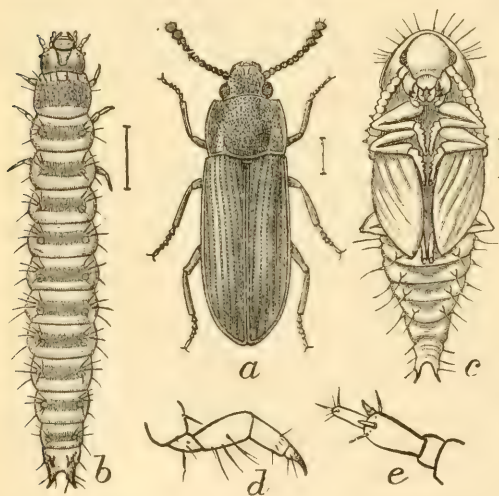


FIG. 1.—The Mexican grain beetle (*Pharaxonotha kirschi*): a, Beetle; b, larva; c, pupa; d, leg of larva; e, antenna of larva. a, b, c, Much enlarged; d, e, more enlarged. (Original.)

present. No statement was made in regard to the habits of any species, but it was surmised by the correspondent that they all bored into the timbers of the crib. In this event it is probable that one of the grain borers (*Dinoderus truncatus* Horn) was present.

DESCRIPTION.

THE ADULT.

Before proceeding with a technical description of the insect it should be stated that the adult, or beetle, is about three-sixteenths of an inch in length, deep brown in color, and highly polished. It has been mistaken for a tenebrionid and has been compared with *Tribolium*, but it resembles the *Ulomini* only superficially and can be distinguished readily by its highly polished surface, by its longer antennæ, and by the five-jointed posterior tarsi.

This species was given the name which it now bears by Reitter in 1875,^{1a} a new genus being erected for its reception and placed by its describer near the genus *Antherophagus* in the family *Cryptophagidæ*. Afterwards it was removed to the *Erotylidæ*, and more recently it has been classified by the same writer¹⁰ as belonging to the *Cryptophagidæ* and the group *Cryptophagini*.

The genus *Pharaxonotha* is characterized by Reitter as follows:

Genus PHARAXONOTHA Reitt.

Antennæ stout, almost as in *Antherophagus*. Gular margin with a prominent tooth. Prosternum behind the coxæ subdilated, apex obtusely rounded, sides margined. Front biimpressed, prothorax hardly narrower than the elytra, subtransverse, sides entire, angles not thickened, basal and lateral margins slightly thickened, base on each side with an abbreviated and strongly impressed line. Elytra striate-punctate, striæ entire and deeper toward apex, humeral angles acute and slightly prominent, anal abdominal segment subtuberculate at tip. Tarsi 5-jointed, fourth joint shorter and narrower than the preceding. Body elongate, robust, upper side hardly visibly pubescent.

The species is thus described by Reitter:

Pharaxonotha kirschi Reitt.

Oblong, slightly convex, subglabrous, fusco-castaneous, shining; head rather densely and rather deeply, and prothorax less densely punctate, subtransverse, almost truncate at apex, sides nearly straight, bisinuate at base, elytra finely striate-punctate, striæ toward apex less deep, sutural stria posteriorly more impressed; beneath sparsely punctate, very finely and sparsely hairy.

Length, 4-4.5 mm.; width, 1.2-1.5 mm.

The beetle is illustrated in figure 1, a.

THE EGG.

The egg is somewhat variable in shape and size. It is more or less elongate-ellipsoidal in form and milk-white in color, and the surface is rather finely shagreened. The length varies from 0.94 to 0.99 mm. and the width from 0.35 mm. to 0.39 mm.

^a Numbers in superior type refer to corresponding numbers in the bibliographic list, page 13.

The other stages of this species were not described for lack of time when specimens were fresh and later these were not in condition for specific description.

THE LARVA.

The larva illustrated at *b* of figure 1 is elongate subcylindrical, about six times as long as wide. It is gray, each segment being darker at the middle, while at the sides of each of these darker spaces there are rather well developed piliferous tubercles. An enlarged leg is shown at *d* and an antenna, also enlarged, at *e*. When full grown the larva measures about five-sixteenths of an inch (8.5 mm.) in length.

THE PUPA.

The pupa (fig. 1, *c*) is about the same size as the adult, paler than the larva, nearly white. It will be noticed that the thorax bears conspicuous long hairs and that similar hairs project from tubercles on the abdomen. In the pupa as well as the larva the anal apex terminates in two divergent points.

It should be added that both larva and pupa are delicate and perceptibly softer than the common grain-feeding tenebrionids found in similar locations.

LITERATURE.

The literature on this species is decidedly scanty. The original description appeared in 1875.¹ This was followed by two records of the finding of the insect in cotton bolls from Bahia, Brazil, one in 1880,² when it is mentioned as "(4) one specimen of a *Diplocœlus* not occurring in the United States," and again in 1885 as follows³: "(4) one specimen of a cryptophagid beetle, apparently undescribed and not occurring in the United States." Mr. E. A. Schwarz, who saw the specimen referred to, assures the writer that it is this species.

In the collection of the United States National Museum there are also specimens bearing this label: "In corn, Guatemala, March 24, 1884."

Brief mention was made in 1894⁵ of the occurrence of this species in exhibits of stored products, the insect being referred to as a "Cryptophagid (?)" with the statement that it was found living in corn meal and edible tubers from the Mexican and Guatemalan exhibits at the World's Fair held in Chicago in 1893. The following year⁶ this species was included in a list of foreign insects introduced into the United States in recent years. In 1896⁷ similar notes were published in a list of insects known to occur in stored products in Mexico and record was made of the capture of the species near San Antonio, Tex., in December, 1895.

In all, this species has received ten notices, none of them extensive, the remainder, which will not receive mention, being descriptive and synonymical articles and notes.

OBSERVED HABITS.

In order to obtain information in regard to the habits of the insect, a number of living adults was placed in a small rearing jar containing fresh meal and slices of raw potato, the latter to furnish additional moisture, and placed in a cool room. Here the adults showed conclusively that they were perfectly able to withstand the average temperature of an ordinary mill, warehouse, or granary of a latitude such as that of the District of Columbia. The beetles are much more active than the meal-feeding tenebrionids. When they were examined some were usually to be seen moving about on the meal and frequently they tried to climb the sides of the jar, although making little progress. Although they crawled into the meal for concealment, for warmth, or for oviposition, they do not, like *Tribolium*, burrow or excavate galleries. On the contrary, they form shallow pits or depressions, several beetles occupying the same pit in partial concealment. The eggs are deposited on the surface of the meal.

In one lot of insects of this species kept under observation, an equal number of *Tribolium* also lived and in perfect harmony. Neither species showed the least signs of being even in the slightest degree predaceous upon the other.

Even with limited material for observation, it soon became manifest that this grain beetle is quite capable of breeding freely in a moderately cool temperature. Beetles began pairing during the first week of April and daily during the warm weather following, but it was noticed that they had already deposited eggs at infrequent intervals during the winter, as a number of larvæ of varying sizes, observed in April, bore witness. The living imagos, seven of which remained alive in the first jar, were now removed to a different jar and placed by themselves. By this time, April 6, some of their progeny were about half-grown larvæ. Of these, the most mature transformed to pupæ May 1 and to imagos May 10, the remainder continuing as larvæ until considerably later.

From another lot of specimens segregated in a second rearing jar and kept in a warm room, it was found that from December 5 to April 10 one adult had issued and many pupæ were present. This gives a full life cycle of eighteen weeks, or four and one-half months, the dry artificial atmosphere probably accounting for the slowness of development.

It has always been noticed that when the larvæ are disturbed they have a habit of rolling up into a ball and remaining thus for a minute or more before resuming their usual activity.

When fully mature, larvæ were observed to come to the surface of the meal in the rearing jars to transform. Save for close observation, the true method of pupation might have escaped notice. When the contents of one jar became too dry, a bit of moistened blotting

paper was inserted. The excess of humidity caused by this addition induced uneasiness on the part of the larvæ, which were now full-grown. When, however, the normal degree of temperature was produced, the larvæ attacked the blotting paper, which happened to be placed against the glass, and soon constructed a pupal cell such as they probably produce under more normal conditions. One of these cells of about typical form is rounded irregularly and measures one-fourth of an inch in length by three-eighths of an inch in its widest diameter. The pupa, as in the case of the pupæ of so many other beetles, rests at the bottom of the cocoon on its back.

Larvæ selected during May for the purpose of observing the period of the pupal stage transformed to pupæ July 16 and to imagos July 22, or in between five and one-half and six days for different individuals. Others in a cooler temperature required 8, 9, and 10 days for the pupal period.

Under above conditions (e. g., from June 23 to July 25) the development of this species, from the laying of the egg to the issuance of the beetle, covered 32 days. This was during an exceedingly heated period and is doubtless not far from the minimum period for the life cycle. In another case, where the weather was cooler, comprising portions of the months of April, May, and June, the life cycle required 59 days, or eight and one-half weeks. Three distinct generations were obtained, from the first generation of beetles to their children and finally to the grandchildren.

The species does not appear to be long-lived under confined conditions. Adults, active and breeding, seldom lived longer than three months. Doubtless in the open this period can be greatly extended.

It should be mentioned in connection with the life history of this species that upward of a week is required for the beetle to acquire the full deep shining brown of maturity. The thorax and the apices of the elytra color last, and the latter often remain much lighter colored than the other parts. The beetles, however, are active long before they have acquired this complete coloration. Hence it happens that in most lots of the beetles seen there are many which are not fully colored, although otherwise perfect.

Some other experiments were made to ascertain if the insect is a primary feeder upon perfectly healthy dry seed. In hard wheat, corn, and beans a few larvæ hatched and for a time lived on the meal that the imagos cut from the corn, but failed to develop. In softer, fresher seed in the field they could no doubt breed freely.

ENEMIES.

A single natural enemy was observed in the rearing jars, viz, the predaceous mite *Pediculoides ventricosus* Newp. It occurred in April and May.

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THE SIAMESE GRAIN BEETLE.

(*Lophocateres pusillus* Klug.)

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

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INTRODUCTORY.

Among other species of injurious insects found for the first time in rice and other cereal exhibits, at the World's Columbian Exposition, held in Chicago in 1893, there was a small trogositid beetle, *Lophocateres pusillus* Klug, which occurred in exhibits from Siam, Liberia, and Ceylon, and which was new to the writer at that time. This species was not then included in our faunal lists, nor does the writer know of any record of its having become established in North America until about 1905^s, although the French coleopterist M. A. Fauvel had

expressed the belief that the species might occur in North America. At the time of its discovery at Chicago it could not be ascertained whether this insect was predaceous or granivorous in habit. Nothing more was heard of the insect until ten years later (1903) when living specimens were observed during September in corn from Blanco, Peru, South America.

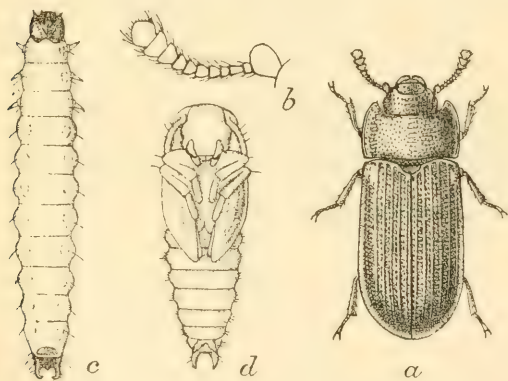


FIG. 2.—The Siamese grain beetle (*Lophocateres pusillus*): a, Adult or beetle; b, antenna of same; c, larva; d, pupa. a, c, d, About ten times natural size; b, greatly enlarged. (Original.)

November 30, 1904, this bureau received from Mr. D. S. Bliss, Bureau of Plant Industry, a bag of paddy rice-heads from Java in which this species was living. Many of the kernels showed where the beetles had escaped.

August 10, 1905, Mr. D. A. Brodie, also of the Bureau of Plant Industry, sent specimens in rice from a rice mill at Charleston, S. C., where the insect was associated with the common *Tribolium navale* Fab. and *Læmophloeus minutus* Oliv. and was evidently established. During the same month Mr. Samuel G. Stoney, Charleston,

S. C., sent specimens of this species, and in a letter of August 22 reported that millers in that vicinity had some years previously received rice from Siam and other points in the Orient as well as from Honduras.

It was reported, October 20, 1906, from El Rancho, Guatemala, by Mr. E. E. Knight, who furnished living specimens, as injuring grain, together with the so-called corn weevil (*Calandra oryza* L.). Living examples also occurred among some infested black beans.

During 1909 the species came under observation on several occasions, especially in different localities in Texas, the records being furnished chiefly by Mr. D. K. McMillan. June 26 of that year specimens were obtained in various materials from a flour mill in Galveston. June 28, Mr. J. G. Sanders, then of this bureau, found adults in eggplant and gourd seeds, and beans from Siam. Of its occurrence at Brownsville, Tex., Mr. McMillan wrote that the beetles were very abundant in old rye from the bottom of a bin, and that they were scattered throughout the mill inspected. He observed that they were much more sluggish than most mill insects, and clung closely to the flour sacks and to wood and paper upon which they were resting. They also have the habit of accumulating, or crowding, into small groups, thus showing the gregarious habit common to most herbivorous insects found in stored material. At one mill it was the most abundant species found among rubbish. October 25, Mr. F. A. Stockdale sent this species in paddy rice imported from India and traced to Georgetown, Demerara. December 6, Mr. McMillan sent specimens from Houston, Tex., where the insect occurred in rough Japan rice. At New Braunfels, Tex., it occurred in old rye, flour, and rubbish.

DESCRIPTION.

THE ADULT.

The genus *Lophocateres* was characterized in 1883 by Olliff, who referred it to the subfamily Peltini of the family Trogositidae, a group which includes the well-known genera *Peltis* and *Calitys*, beetles having flattened, more or less oval, bodies with much flattened thoracic and elytral margins. Olliff's description is as follows:

Genus *LOPHOCATERES* Olliff.

Head nearly quadrate. Eyes rather small, lateral, not prominent. Antennae 11-jointed, basal joint large, with the inner angle much produced, 2nd joint short, 3rd rather longer, 4th to 7th transverse and very short, last four forming a gradually elongated club, of which the joints increase in breadth as they approach the apex. Mandibles robust, inner margin straight, the apex slightly incurved. Maxilla with both lobes narrow and sharply jointed, the inner much the shorter. Maxillary palpi 3-jointed, the basal very small, the 2nd rather longer, the 3rd longer than the 1st and 2nd together, rounded at the apex. Labium with the anterior margin rounded. Labial palpi 2-jointed, of which the apical is somewhat the longer. Prothorax transversely quad-

rate, rather strongly margined laterally. Elytra about the same width as the prothorax, depressed, covering the abdomen, subparallel, with fine costæ. Legs short and slender; tibiæ armed on their outer margins with short, sharp spines, the posterior tibiæ with a row of blunt teeth at the base, slightly projecting over the 1st joint of the tarsus, tibial spurs short; tarsi 5-jointed, the basal very short, the 2nd and 3rd rather longer, the 4th shorter, and the 5th nearly as long as the other four together; claws simple.

The fine but distinct costæ on the elytra, the gradual 4-jointed club of the antennæ, and the peculiar structure of the posterior tibiæ, are characters which will serve at once to distinguish this genus.

The antennæ in the present species (fig. 2, *a*, *b*) have the basal joint much enlarged and produced on the inner surface, the terminal joints forming a three-jointed club instead of a four-jointed one as is in the type species. The strongly produced apices of the thoracic margin form a strong character, common to the group, but not found in other forms of beetles known to attack stored cereals.

Klug's original description of the species is as follows:

PELTIS F.

81. *Peltis pusilla* n. sp.

P. elongata, ferruginea, capite thoraceque punctatis, elytris punctato-striatis. Long. lin. $1\frac{1}{2}$.

Statura fere *P. oblongæ*. Depressa, fere linearis, dorso ferruginea, subtus rufo-testacea. Caput et thorax confertim punctata. Elytra thorace duplo-longiora, marginata, striata, ad strias punctata. Pedes rufo-testacei.

The species may be further recognized by the following description:

Lophocateres pusillus Klug.

Elongate, flattened; dorsal surface glabrous, ferruginous brown, with elytral margins paler ferruginous, strongly punctate. Head deeply, closely, and coarsely punctate. Thorax transverse, finely and distinctly punctate like the head, sides subparallel, narrowed anteriorly. Elytra parallel, each presenting seven costæ which bear on each side a row of close and deep punctures. Apices of elytra rounded. Legs ferruginous.

Length 2.7-3 mm.; width 1.0-1.2 mm.

THE LARVA.

M. Claudius Rey⁶ gives a description of the larva (fig. 2, *c*), of which the following is a translation:

Body subelongate or oblong, somewhat attenuate at the extremities, subdepressed or a little convex, obsoletely pilose at the edges; dirty white, somewhat shiny, with the head and last abdominal segment fulvous, the latter armed at the apex with an angular median tooth, and with two strong hooks with points recurved upward and slightly toward each other.

Head nearly round, a little narrower than the prothorax, somewhat divided by a median channel into two smooth and somewhat convex discs, flattened, biimpressed and subrugulose in front, decided fulvous yellow, provided on the sides with four or five long, pale bristles. Labrum transverse, ruddy. Mandibles ferruginous, with black points, bidentate. Palpi small, testaceous; eyes rather distinct; antennæ slightly projecting, testaceous, the joints narrowing gradually.

Prothorax in the shape of a transverse rectangle somewhat out of proportion, pale and shiny. Mesothorax and metathorax transverse, wider than the prothorax but both together hardly exceeding it in length. Pale, more or less unequal, the sides somewhat curved.

Abdomen more or less enlarged, somewhat rounded at the sides of segments, and narrowing to the rear. Of the nine segments, the first eight are shining dirty-white, short, more or less uneven, folded transversely and surmounted by four longitudinal rows of swellings or scars, the lateral rows of which are less pronounced. The ninth is a little narrower, provided on the back with a large flattened plate, which is received in a broad hollow on the eighth segment, fulvous, rugulose or folded transversely for about the first third, and broadly hollowed upon the summit, the deepest part of the hollow armed with a median angular or conical tooth, and limited by the two strong hooks, darker in color and with the points recurved upward and inward.

Beneath the body is pale, subdepressed, sparsely hairy, more or less uneven, with the underside of the head and the last ventral arch fulvous.

Feet short, pale, terminating in a small hard hook, almost straight, brownish.

Length 5.35 mm.; width 1.07 mm., of head 0.50 mm.

Measurements from fully mature, freshly killed specimens extended full length.

THE PUPA.

The pupa has not been described and no material is at present available for descriptive purposes. The general appearance of the pupa, however, is well shown in the accompanying illustration (fig. 2, *d*). In life it is of the same whitish color as the larva and like the larva, also, its last segment terminates in two processes, slightly incurved.

It measures about 2.7 mm. in length and 1 mm. in width.

DISTRIBUTION.

There is now practically no doubt that the species is firmly established in this country, both in North America and in South America, and that it is cosmopolitan in a somewhat narrow sense, apparently being restricted to the tropical and to the warmer temperate zones corresponding to the Lower Austral of North America.

Since this species was first observed by the writer in a Siamese grain exhibit, and as it appears to be well established there, it may be known as the Siamese grain beetle.

HABITS.

Writing of this species in 1888, M. Claudius Rey stated that he discovered the larvæ in company with the adults in a shipment of soy beans (*Soja hispida*), which were in most part reduced to powder, and which came from Saigon, Cochin China. He remarked that M. Valéry Mayet had collected the same species at Marseille, France, in peanuts, and that the beetle had been captured flying on the maritime coast where he surmised it would probably some day become

naturalized. He expressed the belief that the larva obtained its nourishment from animal substances or products after the supposed habits of other species of Trogositidæ, basing this opinion on its resemblance to them in structure and to the attendant circumstances that the larvæ were not actually found in the seeds of these two plants.

Experiments conducted by the writer, on receipt of living material in 1903, show conclusively that this species will breed in stored grain. A small number of beetles were confined in a jar of uninfested wheat, corn, and meal in February, and in March of the following year, when examined, larvæ from these as well as living beetles and many dead ones were found. There is no evidence as yet of predaceous habits of this insect, as is the case with the related cadelle.

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4. OLLIFF, A. SIDNEY.—Transactions of the Entomological Society of London for 1883, pp. 180–181.
Description of *Lophocateres*, n. gen. Type, *L. nanus* n. sp. from Borneo.
5. OLLIFF, A. SIDNEY.—Cistula Entomologica, vol. 3, pt. 27, p. 58, 1883.
Synoptic table of genus with mention of *L. yvani* as being referred to this genus.
6. REY, CLAUDIUS.—Annales de la Société Entomologique de France, 1888, pp. xxxviii, xxxix.
Description of the larva, mentioned as *Ostoma Yvani* Allibert.
7. RILEY, C. V.—Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., vol. 6, pp. 219, 223, February, 1894.
Found at Chicago World's Fair in cereal exhibits of Siam, Liberia, and Ceylon. Economic status doubtful.
8. CHITTENDEN, F. H.—Yearbook of the United States Department of Agriculture for 1905, p. 630 (separate).
Mention of destructive occurrence in stored rice at Charleston, S. C., where it has evidently become established.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96, Part II.
L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE BROAD-NOSED GRAIN WEEVIL.
THE LONG-HEADED FLOUR BEETLE.

BY

F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,
In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

ISSUED MARCH 31, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1911.

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TRUCK CROP AND STORED PRODUCT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
The broad-nosed grain weevil (<i>Caulophilus latinasus</i> Say).....	19
Notes on occurrence in the United States.....	19
Descriptive.....	20
Distribution.....	22
Literature.....	22
Summary of life history and habits.....	23
Bibliographical list.....	23
The long-headed flour beetle (<i>Latheticus oryzae</i> Waterh.).....	25
Introductory.....	25
Descriptive.....	25
Foreign distribution.....	26
Occurrence in the United States.....	27
History and literature.....	27
Bibliographical list.....	28

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
FIG. 3. The broad-nosed grain weevil (<i>Caulophilus latinasus</i>): Adult and details.....	19
4. The broad-nosed grain weevil: Work in seed of avocado (<i>Persea gratissima</i>).....	20
5. The long-headed flour beetle (<i>Latheticus oryzae</i>): Adult.....	26
6. <i>Latheticus prosopis</i> : Adult.....	26

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE BROAD-NOSED GRAIN WEEVIL.

(Caulophilus latinasus Say.)

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

NOTES ON OCCURRENCE IN THE UNITED STATES.

Receipts, in recent years, of stored products infested by the cossonine weevil *Caulophilus latinasus* Say (fig. 3) appear to indicate that it is permanently established as an enemy of dried cereals and other food materials in the United States.

In December, 1895, the Bureau of Entomology received from the Cotton States and International Exposition, held at Atlanta, Ga., that year, specimens of this weevil found living in chick-peas (*Cicer arietinum*) from Mexico.

February 3, 1899, living beetles were found in about equal numbers with the rice weevil in shelled corn and chick-peas purchased by Mr. August Busck from a store at Arroyo, Porto Rico.

December 3, 1902, Mr. A. L. Herrera, City of Mexico, Mexico, sent a sample of stored corn from Tlaxiaco, State of Oaxaca, infested with this species, which had been previously identified with injury of this nature in Central America.

During February, 1909, the Bureau of Entomology received from Mr. P. J. Wester, Bureau of Plant Industry, several seeds of avocado, or alligator pear (see fig. 4), obtained at Miami, Fla., via Jamaica, infested with numbers of this weevil.

By April 28 the seed centers had become reduced to powder by the weevils and were filled with larvæ and pupæ, while the adults were

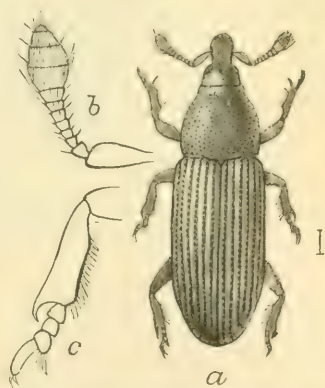


FIG. 3. The broad-nosed grain weevil (*Caulophilus latinasus*): *a*, Beetle; *b*, antenna; *c*, hind leg. *a*, Much enlarged, see size line at right; *b* and *c*, highly magnified. (Original.)

swarming on the sides of the jar. In order to furnish them with food some shelled corn was placed in the jar. By May 5 they had riddled it, and by May 21 it was reduced to meal, and the beetles had perished.

DESCRIPTIVE.

Superficially this species bears some slight resemblance to the grain weevils previously treated. Belonging to the same family of Rhynchophora, the Calandridæ, it has the same slender depressed form and measures about one-eighth of an inch in length (3 mm.). It is of

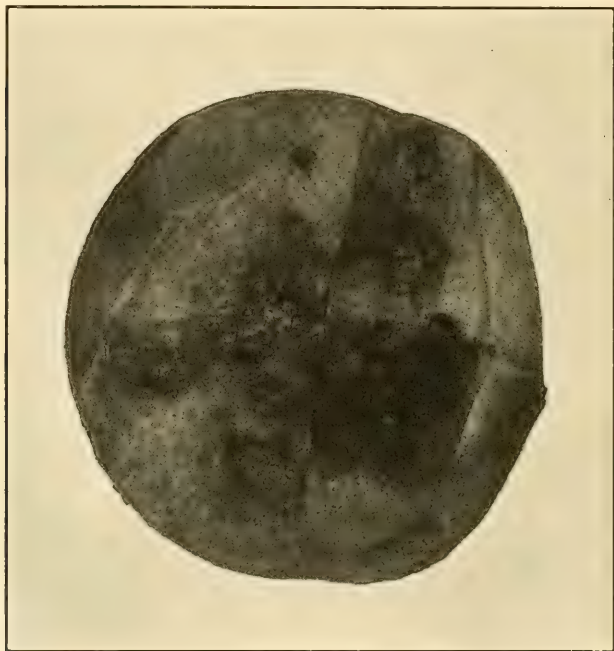


FIG. 4. Seed of avocado (*Persea gratissima*) injured by the broad-nosed grain weevil. (Original.)

a similar dark-brown color, but may be readily distinguished from either of these species by characters which are well shown in the illustrations of the two genera. Of these characters the most obvious are the much broader rostrum and mucronate tibiæ of *Caulophilus*.

A technical description follows:

Reddish brown or piceous, feebly shining, form moderately robust. Rostrum longer than half the thorax, cylindrical, feebly arcuate, sparsely punctured, between the eyes an elongate impressed point. Thorax as broad as long, anteriorly moderately constricted, sides strongly arcuate, base slightly narrowed, feebly bisinuate and with an obsolete impression in front of the scutellum, surface moderately and evenly punctured. Elytra not wider than the thorax, moderately convex, striae moderately deep,

at base punctured but neither coarsely nor closely, punctures at apex obsolete, intervals moderately convex, indistinctly punctulate. Body beneath sparsely punctured. Anterior tibiae sinuate within. [Horn.]

The eighth stria, as pointed out by Horn, is slightly oblique and joins the seventh slightly behind the humerus. The interval between the ninth and marginal striae is reduced to an extremely narrow carina. The union of the seventh and eighth striae is an unusual character in the genus *Cossonus*, but is the usual form in the genus *Rhyncolus*. According to Champion's table this species may be separated from the other three, which he describes, by the elytra being more than twice as long as the thorax, with the elytral intervals simply convex at the apex and closely punctate.

Caulophilus sculpturatus Woll. was described from a single specimen and Wollaston, when writing in after years, remarked that the type was still unique. LeConte,⁷ writing of the probable identity of this species and *latinus*, said that, except that the punctuation of the thorax is coarser in the figure furnished by Wollaston than in the three specimens in his collection, he should not venture to declare them different species.

Wollaston compares *Caulophilus sculpturatus* to the European *Rhyncolus cylindrirostris* Oliv. (= *lignarius* Marsh.), but structurally it differs from this and allied genera. From *Phloeophagus*, with which it is most likely to be associated, the genus *Caulophilus* is said by Wollaston³ to be distinguished by its linear outline, depressed, deeply sculptured surface, and comparatively large eyes and scutellum. It differs from indigenous species of *Phloeophagus* by only the last two of the characters mentioned. It should be stated that it resembles also *Pentarthrinus*, a genus closely related to *Phloeophagus*.

If, in addition to what LeConte says of the difference between his specimens and the figure of the Madeira specimen, we consider the likelihood of Wollaston's find having been a wanderer from some merchant ship returning from one of the then Spanish-American colonies to the home country, is it not more than probable that we have here one and the same species? If a comparison of types should prove such to be the case, Say's name would take precedence, since Wollaston's description did not appear until 1854.

At present the writer is inclined to believe in the specific identity of the Madeira and American specimens, for the indications are that the illustration furnished by Wollaston, although attributed to Westwood, does not agree, as so often happens, with the description. The punctuation of the prothorax in the figure is extremely coarse, while in the text Wollaston expressly says "head and prothorax (especially the latter) deeply and *closely punctured*." (The italics are the writer's.)

Assuming the truth of these remarks, the following would be the synonymy: ^a

Caulophilus latinasus Say.

Rhyncolus latinasus Say, Curculionides, p. 30, 1831 (LeConte edition, vol. 1, p. 299, 1859).

Caulophilus sculpturatus Wollaston, Ins. Mad., p. 315, 1854.

Cossonus pinguis Horn, Proc. Amer. Phil. Soc., vol. 13, p. 442, 1873.

Caulophilus latinasus Say, LeConte, Proc. Amer. Phil. Soc., vol. 15, p. 340, 1876.

DISTRIBUTION.

The known distribution of this species is limited, and it is quite evident that it is not as yet cosmopolitan. There is no reason to believe that it is other than native to America, and, from what is at present known of it, it is safe to consider it as neotropical. The type of the species was from Florida. It is also recorded or has been received at this office from Georgia (Horn), South Carolina, Jamaica, Porto Rico, Mexico, Guatemala, and Madeira.

LITERATURE.

Say's original description appeared in 1831.¹ None of the writers who treated of this insect in after years had anything to say in regard to its habits until 1878, when Mr. E. A. Schwarz⁸ mentioned it as being beaten from dead twigs in Florida.

In 1894 Mr. C. H. T. Townsend¹⁰ noted its occurrence in a can of "scraped ginger" in the Museum of the Institute of Jamaica at Kingston, together with the cigarette beetle (*Lasioderma serricorne* Fab.). The ginger was stated to be riddled with holes, especially the terminal, slightly bulbous ends of the rhizomes. The pest, according to Mr. Townsend, appears always to attack the rhizomes at the terminal ends and work toward the proximal portion. The fine clay-yellow frass was dustlike or powdery. The paper under consideration included a brief description of the species and mention of a parasite doubtfully referred to *Meraporus*, which Mr. Townsend thought to be parasitic upon the weevil.

In 1896 the writer¹¹ mentioned this species and its occurrence in grain at the Atlanta Exposition, and the following year he¹² gave a somewhat more detailed account of the species with a brief review of its biologic literature and some notes on its structure.

^a Recently Mr. G. C. Champion^{13, 14} has brought together the bibliography and synonymy of this species, pointing out that it is identical with *C. sculpturatus* Woll., a conclusion reached by the writer some years ago by comparison of descriptions. Mr. Champion, however, has had the opportunity of comparison of types. He cites the occurrence of the species in Mexico in three localities and in Guatemala, as well as in Madeira and North America. Evidently, however, he missed the writer's reference to the occurrence of the insect at Kingston, Jamaica, in an article published in 1897.¹²

In June, 1909, Mr. G. C. Champion¹³ published a note on this species, having particular reference to its synonymy and distribution. In October of the same year¹⁴ he furnished a synoptic table of four species of the genus, figured the species under consideration, and gave the full synonymy and a list of known localities in which it occurs, notes on variation, etc.

SUMMARY OF LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS.

In addition to what has been said in the introductory portion of this article, it may be added that in Insect Life⁹ the species of *Caulophilus*^a are stated to have similar habits to other Cossonini, which live under bark and in decaying wood. Doubtless this was the original habit of the genus, and perhaps even at the present time it bores in dead roots and perhaps even in twigs, but there is at hand no evidence that such is the case.

To distinguish this species from the granary and rice weevils it may be called the broad-nosed grain weevil, the descriptive adjective being a translation of the specific name *latinasus*.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL LIST.

As the literature of this species is limited and the references have not hitherto been brought together the systematic papers as far as known are included in the following list. References to *C. sculpturatus* are also included on the strong probability of its specific identity with *latinasus*:

1. SAY, THOS.—Descriptions of North American Curculionides, p. 30, July, 1831. (LeConte edition, 1859, p. 299.)
Original description as *Rhyncholus latinasus*, from Florida.
2. BOHEMAN, C. H.—Schoenherr's Genera et Species Curculionidum, vol. 4, p. 1068, 1837.
Latin description as *Rhyncholus latinasus* Say.
3. WOLLASTON, T. V.—Insecta Maderensia, p. 315, pl. 6, fig. 4, 1854.
Description of genus *Caulophilus* and of *C. sculpturatus*, with distinctions from *Phæophagus* and *Caulotrupis*. Original colored figure of *C. sculpturatus*.
4. WOLLASTON, T. V.—Transactions of the Entomological Society of London for 1861, p. 368.
Notes on affinities of the genus and a brief remark on the species.
5. HORN, G. H.—Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, vol. 13, pp. 442, 447, 1873.
Description as *Cossonus pinguis*; Boheman's description of *R. latinasus* quoted and the species doubtfully referred to *Stenoscelis*.
6. WOLLASTON, T. V.—Transactions of the Entomological Society of London, 1873, pp. 499, 586.
Characterization of the genus; notes on *C. sculpturatus* with reason for its separation from *Rhyncholus cylindrirostris* Oliv. (*lignarius* Marsh.).

^a The generic name *Caulophilus*, from two Greek words meaning literally a stalk lover, was applied by deduction from analogy, since Wollaston, writing later, says nothing of the habits of the species from observation, his type having been picked up under a stone.

7. LECONTE, J. L.—Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, vol. 15, p. 340, 1876.
Synonymy (after Horn). Systematic notes.
8. SCHWARZ, E. A.—The Coleoptera of Florida. <Proc. Amer. Phil. Soc., vol. 17, p. 468, 1878.
“Rare, beaten from dead twigs.”
9. RILEY AND HOWARD.—Insect Life, Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., vol. 1, p. 198, 1888.
The genus stated to live under bark of dead and decaying wood, or to bore into decaying wood of deciduous or coniferous trees.
10. TOWNSEND, C. H. T.—Institute of Jamaica, Notes from the Museum No. 78, 1894.
Occurrence in a can of “scraped ginger” with *Lasioderma serricorne*. Brief description of insect and its work, and of a parasite.
11. CHITTENDEN, F. H.—United States Department of Agriculture, Division of Entomology, Technical Series 4, pp. 29–30, 1896.
Notes on its receipt from the Atlanta Exposition in Indian corn and chick-peas in Mexican exhibit.
12. CHITTENDEN, F. H.—United States Department of Agriculture, Division of Entomology, Bulletin 8, new series, pp. 30, 31, 1897.
One-page article on the occurrence of the species in corn and chick-peas from Mexico, with a review of its biologic literature and notes on its structure.
13. CHAMPION, G. C.—Entomologists’ Monthly Magazine, vol. 45, p. 121, June, 1909.
Notes on synonymy and distribution.
14. CHAMPION, G. C.—Biologia Centrali-Americana, Coleoptera, vol. 4, pt. 7, pp. 39, 40, October, 1909.
Bibliography, distribution, and synopsis of species in genus.

THE LONG-HEADED FLOUR BEETLE.

(*Latheticus oryzae* Waterh.)

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTORY.

The long-headed flour beetle (*Latheticus oryzae* Waterh.), one of our most strongly marked flour beetles, was noticed affecting stored rice prior to 1880, but no description was given until that year, when it was recorded by its describer as occurring in rice from Calcutta and elsewhere, including England. It was also known at that time from Arabia.¹ In following years it received notice at times on account of its graminivorous habits.

Quite recently it has been introduced into the United States, being thus far found in Texas, where it is established, and in Michigan, where a similar establishment seems probable. Since the species in question bids fair to become a pest in time, occasion is taken to furnish an account for the benefit of American entomologists, millers, and others, together with an illustration, and to point out the characters which separate the species from other forms of flour beetles previously recorded and described as occurring injuriously within our borders.

DESCRIPTIVE.

This insect may be readily separated from other flour beetles by several characters, especially by the curious antennæ (see fig. 5). The head protrudes far beyond the eyes, and behind each eye is a minute but distinct canthus, such as we see in the genus *Silvanus*. It is the slenderest and the palest of the flour beetles. Its color is pale yellow, and it measures less than one-eighth of an inch (2.5-2.75 mm.) in length.

Before proceeding to the specific description Waterhouse's definition of the genus is repeated:

Genus LATHETICUS Waterhouse.

General form of *Tribolium*. Mentum transverse, the anterior angles rounded, the front margin gently emarginate in the middle, the ligula not much projecting, transverse, emarginate in the middle; the labial palpi short, the apical joint very large, one third longer than broad, subparallel (but narrowed at the base), truncate at the apex. The inner lobe of the maxillæ terminating in a very slender, acute hook, with a broad fringe within; the outer lobe slender, terminating with curved stiff hairs;

the palpi stout, the penultimate joint subquadrate, the apical joint about twice and a half as long as broad, cylindrical, narrowed at the apex. Labrum extremely short. Epistoma trapeziform, emarginate anteriorly, the ocular canthus not projecting laterally beyond the eyes. Eyes moderately prominent, very coarsely granular. Antennæ nearly as long as the head; the two basal joints not visible from above; the third joint the narrowest, about as long as broad; the fourth, fifth, and sixth joints transverse, each a trifle broader than the preceding, the seventh joint distinctly larger than the sixth; the eighth the largest (still transverse), the ninth and tenth a little narrower than the eighth; the eleventh still narrower, somewhat flattened, obliquely truncate at its apex. The rest as in *Tribolium*.

The species is characterized as follows:

Latheticus oryzae Waterh.

General form of *Tribolium ferrugineum*, F., but rather narrower, and with the head relatively larger and broader and more square in general outline. Forehead and middle of the epistoma gently convex; the former not very thickly but very distinctly punctured; the epistoma less distinctly punctured, about twice as broad as long, obliquely (but not much) narrowed anteriorly, declivous in front, impressed at the sides, emarginate in front; the ocular canthus not much encroaching upon the eyes. Antennæ rather short, thickest at the eighth joint, so that their general outline is somewhat fusiform. Thorax very little broader than the head across the eyes, a little narrower behind; very distinctly but not very thickly punctured; the angles obtuse; the sides somewhat straight, very finely margined. Elytra as wide as the broadest part of the thorax, parallel, their surface somewhat uneven or wrinkled; each elytron with four or five scarcely impressed lines, with somewhat large punctures, the lines somewhat irregular, or here and there interrupted. Legs rather slender. [Waterhouse.]

Length 2.5–2.75 mm.; width 0.65 mm.

The genus, as might be readily inferred from the illustration, is closely related to *Tribolium*; in fact, it is placed near the head of the tribe Ulomini, directly after *Hypophloeus* and *Doliema*, thus bringing it above *Cænocorse* (Palorus) and *Tribolium*.

The species is perceptibly shorter than our native *Latheticus prosopis* Chttn., shown in figure 6, a trifle more robust, the thorax being a little shorter, as are also the antennæ. The eyes are strikingly larger and the mandibles are less prominent, the inner tooth being strongly developed.

FOREIGN DISTRIBUTION.

The type of the species was from Calcutta, India. It is also recorded from Arabia, Norway, and England. Champion has added its occurrence in Italy and in a London granary in samples from Bussorah, Persia, and Odessa, Russia.

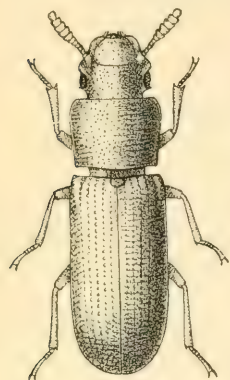


FIG. 5.—The long-headed flour beetle (*Latheticus oryzae*): Adult, much enlarged. (Original.)



FIG. 6.—*Latheticus prosopis*: Adult. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

OCCURRENCE IN THE UNITED STATES.

The occurrence of this genus in the United States was recorded only a few years ago, and the species was not recognized here until 1908. January 16 of that year Mr. D. K. McMillan found this species in corn in a mill at Houston, Tex. It was not observed in abundance and was associated with other mill and grain insects. Later the same species was received from various points in Texas, viz, from New Braunfels, July 3, in flour; from San Antonio, July 25, in rye and elevator sweepings in mill material; from Galveston, in grain; from Fort Worth, in wheat and mill material; from Lyons and Wichita Falls, in wheat, grain, and refuse; and at Dallas, June 22, 1910, in refuse flour and dust in a mill basement. Practically all of these specimens were collected by Mr. McMillan.

In February, 1910, Prof. R. H. Pettit sent several specimens of this species from wheat which came from a mill in Detroit, Mich., but which had doubtless been shipped from elsewhere. It was in this case associated with three or four other common species. The source of infestation could not be learned, nor is it known if the species is established so far north, although such is probably the case.

This insect has a considerable literature for a species which was not described until 1880. Several references are at hand, omitting mere catalogue lists. It is not possible to tell what will be its future economic importance. It has shown its capability of holding its own with other flour beetles like *Tribolium* and also with *Rhizopertha*, *Calandra*, and *Læmophilæus*—all grain feeders. It is now becoming acclimated indoors and may even make its abode out of doors in tropical and semitropical regions such as are afforded by Texas, portions of Kansas, Mexico, and other sections of the South; hence it would not be beyond the bounds of possibility for it to assume considerable economic interest in America.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE.

The species was described by Charles O. Waterhouse in 1880.¹ He mentions the fact that Mr. G. C. Champion had specimens found in rice (locality not stated), and that the species had been for some time represented by specimens in the British Museum and other collections.

In 1894 Mr. G. C. Champion² published a note on this species and its occurrence in barley in a London granary from a sample from Bussorah, Persia, and one from Odessa, Russia. He noticed that the species is very active, and when the samples were placed in the sun or warmed the beetles rapidly emerged from the grain. He was informed that the insects soon spread from one bulk to another in granaries and expressed the opinion that the species was of eastern origin, although the real habitat was of course unknown, and that it

would soon rank with such cosmopolitan forms as *Gnathocerus*, *Alphitobius*, *Palorus* [*Cænocorse*], etc., and be carried to all parts of the world.

In 1904 the writer⁹ quoted Waterhouse's description of the genus *Latheticus* and compared *L. oryzæ* with *L. prosopis*, the latter being described as a new species. More recently, in 1910,¹⁰ he recorded the occurrence of the species in the United States and gave a description, the distribution, and a brief table separating the two species.

Several other notes have been published on this species in addition to those which have been mentioned, ten being the total in hand by the writer. They are all listed below and no further mention need be made of them.

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3. BILLUPS, T. R.—The Entomologist, vol. 13, pp. 209-210, 1880.
Mention of occurrence in a London grain warehouse.
4. WATERHOUSE, CHAS. O.—Aid to the Identification of Insects, vol. 1, plate 15, 1880-82.
A colored plate of the beetle and brief reference.
5. FOWLER, W. W.—Entomologist's Monthly Magazine, vol. 19, p. 269, 1883.
Included in a list of Coleoptera new to the British fauna.
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Description of the species under the name *Lyphia striolata* (cf. Champ., Ent. Mo. Mag., vol. 33, p. 146).
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Bibliography, definition of genus and species, and distribution in Europe.
8. CHAMPION, G. C.—Entomologist's Monthly Magazine, vol. 30, p. 259, November, 1894.
A note on this species and its occurrence in barley in a London granary, received originally from Bussorah, Persia, and Odessa, Russia.
9. CHITTENDEN, F. H.—Journal of the New York Entomological Society, vol. 12, pp. 166-167, 1904.
Quotes Waterhouse's characterization of the genus *Latheticus* and gives comparison of *L. oryzæ* with *L. prosopis*, n. sp.; 1 original figure.
10. CHITTENDEN, F. H.—Proceedings of the Entomological Society of Washington, vol. 12, pp. 135-137, 1910.
Description, distribution, occurrence, and table for separating this species from *L. prosopis*.

^a Seidlitz gives reference also to his "Fauna baltica," second edition, page 517, 1891, and "Fauna transsylvanica," page 554, 1891.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96, Part III.
L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE LESSER GRAIN-BORER.
THE LARGER GRAIN-BORER.

BY

F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,
*In Charge of Truck Crop*and Stored Product Insect Investigations.*

ISSUED MARCH 31, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1911.

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TRUCK CROP AND STORED PRODUCT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
The lesser grain-borer (<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i> Fab.)	29
Introductory	29
Description of the species	30
Distribution	31
Literature, known history, and habits	32
Office notes and correspondence	32
Biologic notes	35
Experiments with remedies	36
General conclusions	46
Bibliography	46
The larger grain-borer (<i>Dinoderus truncatus</i> Horn)	48
Introductory	48
Description	48
History and literature	50
Office experiments	50
Bibliography	52

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
FIG. 7. The lesser grain-borer (<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>): Adult.....	30
8. Section of horse collar showing holes bored by the lesser grain-borer.	34
9. The larger grain-borer (<i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>): Adult, larva, pupa, details	50
10. The larger grain-borer: Kernel of corn showing characteristic work of adult or beetle	51

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE LESSER GRAIN-BORER.

(*Rhizopertha dominica* Fab.)

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTORY.

Among insects which inhabit granaries and storehouses, and which feed upon dry cereals, are two species of beetles of the family Bostrychidae, which are of considerable importance in tropical climates, but are fortunately seldom seriously injurious in colder countries.

On account of their boring proclivities, the writer has termed these species, for convenience, grain-borers. The commonest and best known species is *Rhizopertha dominica* Fab. (fig. 7), and the less known species is *Dinoderus truncatus* Horn. From their different sizes we may call these, for convenience, the lesser grain-borer and the larger grain-borer, respectively. The former is cosmopolitan and attacks different cereals and several other substances; the latter is tropical and though also a general feeder, at least in its adult stage, is by virtue of its larger size apparently restricted, in the cereals, to maize.

The former species will receive consideration in the present paper. It has already obtained a footing in this country and is frequently brought to our shores from outside sources in stored cereals and other seeds and similar material, and is of considerable economic importance, especially in warm or tropical regions.

So far as known, it appears to prefer grain to other dry products, but shows an inclination to be omnivorous, feeding also upon drugs, and boring into the wood of packing boxes and casks.

Mr. E. C. Cotes has said that this species and the rice weevil "are the two insects that do most of the injury to stored wheat in India." Owing to its minute size several individuals inhabit even smaller seeds.

No common name, with the exception of "the wood bug," which is probably local, appears to have been applied to this insect other

than the German one used by Taschenberg. He calls it the "Getreide-Kapuciner"—the significance of which name is apparent to anyone familiar with the appearance of the insects of this and related genera. The object of the likeness is the hoodlike prothorax covering the insect's head.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SPECIES.

This is one of the smallest of the beetles which are injurious to grain in the kernel, being considerably shorter and narrower than the grain weevils. The beetle is about one-eighth of an inch long and about one-thirty-second of an inch in width, quite narrow, being therefore, approximately, four times as long as wide. The form is nearly cylindrical; the head is comparatively large and prominent, and bent down under the thorax in the manner peculiar to most members of the family Bostrychidae; the antennae are also prominent, as are the eyes and the mandibles. The antennae are ten-jointed and terminate in a prominent three-jointed club. The color is dark brown or castaneous and polished throughout.

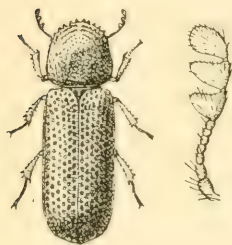


FIG. 7.—The lesser grain-borer (*Rhizopertha dominica*): Beetle, with enlarged antenna at right. Beetle about 12 times natural size. (Original.)

The beetle is shown in figure 7, with the antennae, much enlarged, at the right.

The original description of this species, according to M. P. Lesne, was published by Fabricius in 1792, antedating the *Synodendron pusillus* of the same writer, by which specific name (*Rhizopertha pusilla*) the insect has generally found mention until very recent years. The description reads as follows:

[*Synodendron*]. laeve nigrum obscurum elytris striatis, pedibus piceis.
Habitat in America meridionali Dom. Pflug.

The more important synonyms, according to M. Lesne and others, are as follows:

Synodendron dominicum Fab., Ent. Syst., vol. 1, pt. 2, p. 359, 1792.

Synodendron pusillum Fab., Suppl. Ent. Syst., p. 156, 1798.

Ptinus piccus Marshal, Ent. Brit., vol. 1, p. 88, 1802.

Rhizopertha pusilla Fab., Stephens, Illus. Brit. Ent., vol. 3, p. 354, 1830.

Apate rufa Hope, Trans. Ent. Soc. London, vol. 4, p. 17, 1845.

Apate frumentaria (Nördlinger) Motschulsky, Études Entomologiques, p. 78, 1857.

Dinoderus pusillus Fab., Horn, Proc. Amer. Phil. Soc., vol. 17, p. 550, 1878.

Rhizopertha dominica Fab., Lesne, Ann. Soc. Ent. France, vol. 66, p. 332, 1898.

For convenience the description of the earlier stages will be given in a later chapter (pp. 35–36).

DISTRIBUTION.

As with many other cosmopolitan insects, the original habitat of this species does not appear to be known. The type specimens were from South America, but the species is apparently not of very common occurrence on that continent. On this head the Rev. Dr. Gorham¹⁵ has remarked: "It does not appear to have been met with in any numbers in Central America."

Evidently the species is neither European nor American. According to published records, it is, or at least was for years, most injurious in India, and until we know more of the distribution of insects, it is safe to assume it came originally from India, or from some adjacent tropical country.

In the United States it seems to be well established in some southern ports but to have a more or less insecure footing northward, except in large seaports like New York City, and it is not improbable that it occasionally dies out in the smaller inland places to which it is carried in foreign material or in that which has been exposed to infestation at the seaports.

A list of localities from which it has been reported in our country, besides what are recorded in this paper, includes: New York City; Brooklyn, N. Y.; Washington, D. C.; Chicago, Ill.; Keokuk, Iowa (Casey); Charleston, S. C.; Atlantic County, N. J. (Wenzel); Philadelphia, Pa.; Arizona (Horn); and Canada (Hamilton).

It should be remembered that there is strong probability that the species has died out in some of the localities mentioned, e. g., it is positively not a permanent pest in the District of Columbia.

The date of original introduction into this country can not be surmised, even approximately. LeConte⁸ has expressed the opinion that it was first introduced into the United States in Persian wheat distributed by the Patent Office. This must have been prior to 1861, the date of the publication in which this opinion was given.

In Europe, according to Redtenbacher,⁹ this species is seldom found outside of London, Trieste, and a few other large seaports. Its abundance in London is to be attributed to the large quantities of grain that were brought, at least formerly, from India to that port. Fitch¹¹ found it in London in abundance in two out of three samples of wheat. Nördlinger has recorded Lorraine and Stuttgart as localities. In nearly all cases in which this insect has been reported in numbers sufficiently numerous to attract attention in European cities, the grain in which it has occurred has been stated to have come from India, Egypt, or even America.

Other localities in the East in which this species has been found include Hawaii, Madeira, and Algeria, in all of which countries it is believed to have been introduced from elsewhere.

In Central America it is recorded by Gorham from Vera Cruz, Mexico, and Belize, Honduras. According to Motschulsky it occurs also in Cuba.

LITERATURE, KNOWN HISTORY, AND HABITS.

The biologic literature of this species, although it has been known for a century, is limited to short notices, usually in connection with its technical description or records of its occurrence in new localities.

It was from seeds and roots imported from India that the species was redescribed by Fabricius.² Stephens⁴ and others have also remarked that it is found in this manner. Kirby and Spence³ wrote of this species in 1822 that it fed upon the roots of rhubarb, in which it was detected at the East India Company's warehouses in London.

Wollaston, writing in 1854,⁶ found this insect in great abundance in England in powdered arrowroot, and refers to the record of Lucas⁵ of its existence in Algeria "beneath the bark of *Quercus suber* and *Cytisus spinosus*."

In 1857 Motschulsky⁷ states concerning what is without doubt this species, which he calls *Apate frumentaria* Nördlinger, that it is very common in grain in Egypt, whence it has been introduced into Europe, being listed in the Dejean Catalogue under the name *Apate castanea* Ulrich. Incidentally he notes its occurrence in Cuba, and states that *Dinoderus frumentarius*—evidently another synonym—was found in a single specimen in a cargo of rice from East India.

During the years from 1874 to 1879 brief mention was made by different persons of the occurrence of this species in wheat and in granaries.

In the year 1882 Dr. C. V. Riley published a note¹⁴ on its occurrence as a museum pest. The previous year it was found at this department in insect boxes which had not been used for many years, appearing suddenly in large numbers and perforating the paper lining and evidently feeding on the cork with which the box was lined. The source of this introduction was not ascertained, the whole occurrence being designated as a mystery.

Writing in 1883, Rev. H. S. Gorham¹⁵ noted the occurrence of this species commonly in wood of sugar casks.

In the next few years Mr. E. C. Cotes made frequent mention of its occurrence in different products in India in Indian Museum Notes.⁶¹⁻¹⁹ It was observed injuring ship's biscuits, the seed of wheat, and "cholum seed" (*Sorghum vulgare*).

OFFICE NOTES AND CORRESPONDENCE.

During the winter of 1880-81 this species appeared in great numbers in a glass-covered insect box in this office, boring into the cork-pith lining. This matter has been previously mentioned in referring

to Dr. Riley's article.¹⁴ April 20, 1881, beetles and larvæ were found in the museum of this department, where they were infesting wheat from Peru, sorghum, and edible bulbs, as well as bread made from them and used as food by Indians, and in wild prairie turnip.

During the World's Fair in 1893 the writer obtained specimens of the beetles which had bred from a jar of some product of Abyssinian banana (*Musa ensete*) from Mexico.

February 3, 1896, beetles were received from Mrs. Lucy P. Love, New York City, who found them in graham flour. October 8, specimens were received from the writer's sister, Mrs. E. C. Jones, Brooklyn, N. Y., found in a box of rice in an importing house in New York City. The information was elicited, by inquiry, that this species is known to the trade as "the wood bug" from its frequent importation in the wood of boxes used in the shipment of rice. The exact origin of this lot of rice could not be ascertained. It seems probable, however, when we take into consideration the habits of the genus, that this grain-borer is quite as often introduced into new localities in the wood of rice boxes as in the grain itself. November 11 specimens were detected in a soft variety of Indian corn purchased at this department and said to have come from Peru.

June 11, 1898, specimens were found in Carolina rice received from Mr. J. L. Sheppard, Charleston, S. C., and in September and later in that year this bureau received several lots of "pearl millet" (*Pennisetum typhoideum*) through the then Division of Agrostology, with report that the seed was originally from India.

There are other records of receipt of this species in rice and other grains which need not be mentioned here.

During 1901 the Bureau of Entomology received specimens in a consignment of seed Japan rice from Mr. W. W. Bamberge, who remarked as follows:

Honduras rice in the vicinity of infested Japan rice did not show the insects' presence. It was noticed that the insects were flying, and their flight, though short, being coincident with the growth of new rice, our correspondent was alarmed lest they attack rice in the field, and that they might prove a scourge.

July 6, 1903, Mr. G. H. Harris sent a large section of a horse collar (fig. 8) infested by many specimens of this beetle from Calvert, Tex. The dealers in saddlery and in leather goods stated that the beetles do not attack goods unless they have been kept in stock for three or four years. They dispose of such stock at a loss of from 10 to 20 per cent.

Later a saddlery firm at San Antonio, Tex., wrote in regard to injury to horse collars as follows:

Complying with the esteemed request of yours of the 12th inst., 1908, I am forwarding you by today's mail, under separate cover, specimens of the bug mentioned to you in our favor of August 6. I am also inclosing a portion of a horse collar showing the stuffing as the collar is made. My collars are



FIG. 8.—Section of horse collar showing holes bored by the lesser grain-borer (*Rhizopertha dominica*). One-half natural size. (Original.)

stuffed with rye straw. Of course this straw contains some few loose grains of rye; however, I am at the present time cutting the heads off of the straw to try and eliminate any grain entering the collar. The grain has been previously threshed from the straw. You will find live specimens in a box in the package. Trusting that through your office I may gain such information as will enable me to exterminate this bug or its egg before or after the collar is stuffed, and thanking you for any information that you may be able to furnish me, I remain, * * *.

In addition to the notes and records which have just been furnished, the Bureau of Entomology has reports of the finding of this species in cereals and waste material in mills in different portions of Texas; in flour at Denison, Tex.; in rice at Crowley, La.; in corn from Houston, Tex.; in mill material generally throughout the State of Texas, and there is one record of the occurrence of the insect from Georgetown, Demerara, where it was imported in paddy rice from India.

July 8, 1908, Mr. D. K. McMillan reported this insect very common in samples of grain from an old mill in Sherman, Tex., which was unused for 15 months. It was also very common in samples of rubbish from a milling company in the same place. The adults bored holes through the cotton sacks, the cloth of which had a starch and whiting filler, thus liberating *Cænocorse*, *Calandra*, and other grain insects in the sample bags.

During February, 1910, Prof. R. H. Pettit, entomologist of the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station, sent specimens found in wheat from a Detroit mill, and associated with other species.

The bureau has also a note from Mr. Knight, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, United States Department of Agriculture, who brought seeds of white lotus in which this species was at work.

BIOLOGIC NOTES.

From a lot of insects obtained in 1881 observations were made by Mr. Th. Pergande, whose notes have been of assistance to the writer in the preparation of this chapter.

From eggs deposited April 27 larvæ were obtained on May 11, or in fourteen days after egg deposit. All the eggs were lying loose among the excrement of the insects at the bottom of the jar.

The egg.—The egg is white, of elongate pear-shaped form, one end forming a rather narrow stem or neck, bearing on one side at its base a transverse impression or suture causing the egg to bend somewhat to one side. Both ends of the egg are rounded; the surface is slightly polished and apparently somewhat rough. The length of the egg is 0.6 mm., and across its thickest portion a little over 0.2 mm.

The newly hatched larva.—The newly hatched larvæ were described as white, slightly yellowish toward the head: head yellowish,

ocelli reddish-brown, arranged in a triangle, mouthparts brownish, antennae very short, the head beset with a few long hairs; legs tolerably long, slightly yellowish, with long claws. Each of the abdominal segments bears ventrally a number of long hairs, and similar hairs are also on the dorsal side of the segments 7 and 8. The last segment bears a slightly curved, yellow horn, directed backward. Length a little less than 0.3 mm.

The fully developed larva.—The larva when fully developed is of the characteristic bostrychine form similar to that of *Dinoderus truncatus*, shown at *b* of figure 9. It is rather more elongate than usual in the Ptinidae, and more constricted at the middle. The ground color is white, the head is light brown, and the mandibles dark brown, nearly black. The claws of the legs are light brown. The body is covered with minute, slender, pale-brownish hairs, which are denser and somewhat longer on the first thoracic and last two abdominal segments.

The larvæ when lying on their sides resemble somewhat, on a smaller scale, those of the lamellicorns, the body being curved in the same manner. Locomotion in this position is possible, but very slow.

Full-grown larvæ measured about 2.8 mm. in length.

Examination of the pellets of excrement made by the beetles shows a somewhat remarkable method of deposition. The pellets are placed in strings of from two to six and sometimes more.

The exact time consumed by this species in its development has not been ascertained to the writer's knowledge. From a lot of fresh corn in which eggs were deposited April 27, however, several beetles were observed August 12.

EXPERIMENTS WITH REMEDIES.

For a long time the writer has desired that a series of experiments be conducted with the standard fumigants, to ascertain if this species is in any degree more, or less, resistant than other insects which injure stored products, such as the grain weevils, the grain beetles, flour beetles, and others. Opportunity for experiments with hydrocyanic-acid gas was offered in December, 1910, at Beaumont, Tex., where Mr. M. M. High, an agent of this bureau, working under the writer's special direction, conducted a series of experiments. Coincident with these experiments another series of experiments with bisulphid of carbon was being carried out in the Department of Agriculture. A still longer series of experiments was also carried on by Mr. D. K. McMillan, at Houston and Beaumont, Tex., both with hydrocyanic-acid gas and with bisulphid of carbon under various conditions and strengths.

The results show that this grain-borer appears to be possessed of a lower degree of vitality, or at least of less resistant power to both of these gases than are the other classes of grain-feeding insects which have been mentioned. These series of experiments are also of value as bearing out the writer's experience in the experimental and practical fumigation of inclosures against insects in low temperatures, substantiating conclusions made years ago, that insects in general are not so susceptible to poisonous gases while torpid as when they are exposed to a higher temperature and are consequently normally active.

EXPERIMENTS BY D. K. McMILLAN.

BISULPHID OF CARBON.

Experiments Nos. 1 and 2.—At Houston, Tex., December 2 and 3, a bin of Japan rough rice badly infested with the lesser grain-borer and other species was treated in a mill with carbon bisulphid by pouring the liquid upon a large mass of empty sacks within another sack and hanging in the bin just above the grain. The bin contained about 2,500 bushels and was about one-third full.

The top could not be closed in any practicable way.

A short time after putting in the carbon bisulphid the fumes were coming out of the cracks in the sides and out of the bottom, which was 8 feet above the floor of the mill. Two experiments were made, with an exposure of 24 hours, as follows:

- 1 gallon of carbon bisulphid to 2,500 bushels of grain.
- 2 gallons of carbon bisulphid to 2,500 bushels of grain.

A large quantity of grain from the bottom of the bin showed practically all insects alive. As the bin was not tight enough and the weather was below 45° F. during this time, these experiments were unsuccessful.

A series of experiments with carbon bisulphid was conducted at Beaumont, Tex., December 5 to 7, upon various rice-mill products infested principally with this species. The tests were made with 50-gallon glucose barrels, which were very tight from the sirup, and tight covers of car paper were fitted over the tops and tied firmly.

Carbon bisulphid in the following proportions was used:

Experiment No.	Proportion.	Exposure.
		Hours.
3.....	2 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24
4.....	4 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24
5.....	5 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24
6.....	6 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24
7.....	8 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24
8.....	10 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24
9.....	15 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24
10.....	20 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.....	24

No insects appeared to be affected until the sixth lot was examined, and only a small percentage, if any, was killed. About 35 per cent were killed with 15 pounds to the 1,000 cubic feet, and 75 per cent with the highest strength used. The temperature ranged from below 32° F. to 68° F. outside the building, which was a shed with sheet-iron sides, and the temperature of the rice was about 48° F.

This follows closely the results of experiments by Hinds and Turner^a with *Calandra* during cold weather.

Experiment No. 11.—A three-day exposure was planned to treat between 200 and 300 sacks of infested screenings containing principally this species, with a quantity of rough rice and brewers' rice piled in loose stacks, and in more compact stacks as in the regular storage room. With the same formula and 15 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet the room was left closed from 5.30 p. m. October 29 until 11 a. m. November 2, or a period of about 90 hours, although about 2 hours additional were required to allow the room to free itself of the gas.

When the door was opened after this long exposure the rush of fumes was very strong and the sacks gave up gas for at least 24 hours afterwards. A long search through all the sacks failed to discover any living *Rhizopertha*; and after giving a sack from the interior an airing, together with material from different places, a half-dozen adult *Tribolium navale* Fab. were seen in motion. All other insects were evidently dead, though of course the entire lot could not be examined in detail.

This seems to give good evidence that with a long exposure the insects can be killed in a tight room. If the room had been closed for another day doubtless the *Tribolium* adults would not have recovered.

HYDROCYANIC-ACID GAS FROM SODIUM CYANID.

Experiment No. 12.—In the first fumigation with cyanid of soda, the 1-2-3 formula (1 pound cyanid, 2 pints sulphuric acid, and 3 pints water) was used for an exposure of 24 hours at the rate of 15 ounces to 1,000 cubic feet to test the penetrative powers of an increased dosage.

After airing the room sufficiently samples were taken from all parts of the room and from all parts of the piles and exposed to the open air in the bright sunshine for an hour, and examined carefully. The piles of bags were covered with dead insects of all species, and especially with *Rhizopertha dominica*. There were many dead within the sacks, but probably 50 per cent of this species were alive at 4 inches depth in the rice and screenings, while in the lower sacks and those with sacks surrounding them very few were dead except on the outside.

Experiment No. 13.—Another exposure of 48 hours with the same formula and dosage was given to over 200 bags of materials similar

^a See Hinds and Turner, Journ. Econ. Ent., vol. 3, pp. 47-56, 1910.

to the first lot, giving a complete range of mill products, all badly infested with *Rhizopertha dominica* except the clean rice and bran.

Fully 95 per cent of the *Rhizoperthas* were dead in all the bags except those having two or more between them and the outside of the piles. In the well-protected sacks about 25 per cent were living, which showed that the gas was beginning to penetrate deeply.

Tribolium and *Calandra* resisted the gas much better than *Rhizopertha*, and a longer exposure and probably increased dosage would be necessary to destroy all the insects in the center.

A space between two partitions near the center of the system of storage was boarded up on four sides and ceiled with planed boards without grooves or lap, but solid and suitable as a foundation for the three-ply heavy roofing tarred paper which formed the lining of the room. This was carefully put on with a good lap at each seam, all of which were fastened with a good application of roofing cement before being lapped and nailed, so that a very tight room was the result. The floor was of tongue-and-groove lumber and appeared very tight. Special care was taken with the door and frame, which were beveled and faced with strips from an old rubber belt. The door was held shut after charging by a heavy bar sliding into iron hooks. The door itself was of two thicknesses of good boards, with an uncut sheet of the roofing felt between. That the leakage was very slight was proved by the faint odor of gas, noticeable only after fumigation had been in progress some time, and this came out almost entirely through the floor.

The room was the most nearly gas-proof structure possible under the circumstances and better than many nursery fumigating houses which have come under the writer's observation. There was no leakage through the walls while the experiments were being carried on, and the loss of gas through the floor and around the door was slight. An objection, consisting in the absence of ventilators other than the door, was obviated by leaving the door open all night at the end of the experiments, as the material could not be immediately moved out. The room was not rectangular as to shape of the ground floor, but the sides averaged 14.25 feet, and the height of ceiling was 13.50 feet, making the cubic contents 2,741 cubic feet.

For generators two stoneware jars or "churns" holding 3 gallons each were used.

Several wooden trestles, 2 feet high, with planks laid across them, were placed in the room on which to pile the sacks, so that the gas could have access to them from beneath as well as from all sides.

As the room was in a dark part of the sheds, it was necessary to have an electric light on an extension hung in the room in order that the sacks could be properly arranged.

For the first experiment about 100 pockets of screenings, rough and clean rice bran, brewer's grain, and the various materials about the mill were put in the room; some upon the trestle, others on the floor in loose and compact stacks, to represent the different conditions found in the mill and warehouse.

The most abundant species was *Rhizopertha dominica*, as stated above, but an effort was made to have all other species around the premises represented in larval and adult stages at least, and these were placed at various depths in the sacks and in piles of materials contained in them.

When a visit was made to this mill early in December, 1909, the manager became interested in the idea of having a special room or chamber constructed in the mill or warehouse in which to place infested material for treatment. He agreed to have such a room built according to directions given by the writer. Efforts were made at several other rice mills to have a practical gas-proof chamber built by the owners as a permanent adjunct to their plants, but without success.

Later one of these firms constructed a room for fumigating and used it for treating clean rice with sulphur fumes. It was built in the corner of the clean-rice warehouse by erecting two partitions of tongue-and-groove flooring, single thickness, and had become cracked and warped in some places.

It required considerable work and time to line and make it gas tight. When another visit was made to this mill carpenters had built a fumigating chamber in the rough-rice warehouse for convenience in treating screenings from the rough rice and also the brewer's grain and other infested material which was stored in the rough-rice building. The next experiments (Nos. 14-17) were made by Mr. M. M. High.

EXPERIMENTS BY M. M. HIGH.

HYDROCYANIC-ACID GAS FROM SODIUM CYANID.

Experiment No. 14.—December 16, 1910, the fumigating room just described was carefully inspected for outlets for the escape of the gas. Two holes about the size of one's finger, which had evidently been made by the careless use of trucks, in one wall and a rat hole in one corner of the room were covered and 120 sacks of infested rough rice were placed in the room, care being taken to stack closely. In this the most numerous insect pest was the lesser grain-borer (*Rhizopertha dominica*). Four other species were present in smaller numbers.^a

^a Of these the rust-red flour beetle (*Tribolium navale* Fab.) was second in abundance, followed by the rice weevil (*Calandra oryza* L.), the cadelle (*Tenebroides mauritanicus* L.), a few individuals of the saw-toothed grain beetle (*Silvanus surinamensis* L.), and the fig moth (*Ephestia cautella* Walk.).

Sixty-five sacks of chicken feed, in which this grain-borer was decidedly the most numerous pest, were also placed in the fumigating room. Everything needed to charge the room with hydrocyanic-acid gas was put in place, and at 5.20 p. m. fumigation was begun. The cubic capacity of the room was approximately 2,600 feet. The rate of application was 20 ounces to 1,000 cubic feet of space, using the 1-1-3 formula, i. e., 1 ounce sodium cyanid, 1 fluid ounce sulphuric acid (commercial), and 3 fluid ounces water. After the bags of cyanid had been placed in the jars the door was closed immediately, taking care to make it as tight as possible. The door remained closed until 5.20 p. m. on December 17, thus making a period of 24 hours' exposure. After the door had been opened a short time the room was entered to ascertain results. The fumigating room had only one door and no windows, so an electric globe was used. Samples were taken from sacks in different parts of the room, from the middle of the stack, and from the sacks on the floor. Nearly every one was examined with a trowel, so as to reach the middle of the sack. Dead bodies of *Rhizopertha* almost completely covered the sacks of the chicken-feed rice and were nearly as abundant over the sacks of the rough rice. Beetles of this species were dead all over the room, with the exception of a few individuals taken from the middle of a sack that lay at the base of one of the jars used. On the interior of this sack, which was probed deeply a number of times, a few beetles were struggling between life and death, while the outside of the sack was covered with their dead bodies.^a

Experiment No. 15.—As *Silvanus* and *Tribolium* appeared more abundant in the clean rice, the manager of the mill was asked for 150 pockets of clean rice to be placed in the fumigating room; but as the mill where the clean rice was stored and the fumigating room were some distance apart, a wagon had to be used. This was rather slow with a limited number of men, so that only 25 pockets of the clean rice were transported to the fumigating room. This, however, was placed with the rough rice, so as to make results the same as they would have been had a greater amount of clean rice been secured. On December 19 at 3 p. m. the charge was liberated. The amount of cyanid was the same as used in the previous charge, i. e., 20 ounces to 1,000 cubic feet of space, but the room was to remain closed 48 hours instead of 24.

December 21, at the same hour, the fumigating room was opened and an examination begun. Out of the first lot of samples taken, which were from pockets near and upon the floor, a few individuals

^a *Tribolium navale*, which was not nearly so numerous in the rough rice as the *Rhizopertha*, was yet quite active. No live specimens of *Calandra* or *Tenebroides* were found.

of *Tribolium* were found still alive. The number of live specimens was estimated at about 5 per cent. The examination was continued for two hours, taking samples from all parts of the room, when the number that failed to succumb seemed to decrease somewhat, for sample after sample was taken from the more exposed pockets and no live specimens were observed, with exception of grain from sacks taken from the interior of the stack of pockets. From near the center of these pockets a few specimens were yet fully active. No other species was observed alive, but all appeared dead with the exception of *Tribolium navale*.

Experiment No. 16.—At 5 p. m. December 21 another charge was made, using the same amount of sodium cyanid and sulphuric acid as in previous experiments (20 ounces of cyanid to 1,000 cubic feet), and left until December 24. The door was opened at the same hour and the inspection begun, paying special attention to the clean rice and the bran where *Tribolium* was most abundant. At this time no live specimens were found at all, but the dead bodies were numerous.

The conditions for fumigation work were not the most favorable; the temperature was too low to secure the best results, ranging from 49° F. to a little above 60° F. the whole time the experiments were on. It has been demonstrated that better results are obtained at a temperature upward of 65° F. At this time the weevils are more active and succumb more readily to the fumes.

Experiment No. 17.—Later, December 26, at 67° to 71° F. a sample of rough and chicken-feed rice treated with hydrocyanic-acid gas for a period of 24 hours had yet alive one specimen of *Calandra oryza*, two specimens of *Rhizopertha dominica* (hundreds of dead bodies), and several of *Tribolium navale*. On the same date samples of rough rice, chicken-feed rice, rice bran, and clean rice were examined to ascertain if any living weevils were yet present. From one cigar box of rice bran and rough rice 5 beetles of the *Tribolium* were found, quite active.^a

EXPERIMENTS BY THE WRITER AND BY MESSRS. POPENOE AND JONES.

BISULPHID OF CARBON.

Experiment No. 18.—December 31, 1910, at Washington, D. C., a lot of *Rhizopertha dominica* in cracked rice, together with other insects, was placed in a bag and exposed to the fumes of bisulphid of carbon in one of the fumigating boxes of the type much used in the Department of Agriculture for fumigating seeds, the reagent being used at the minimum strength for such purpose, or at the rate

^a Among this same material three of *Silvanus* were alive, while there were a number of dead bodies each of *Tribolium* and *Silvanus*. In the clean rice, where both species were more numerous, all were dead.

of $1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds to 1,000 cubic feet of air space. Exposure was for 48 hours, at the end of which time, when the box was opened, no odor whatever remained of the bisulphid, showing that the exposure had been complete. The box was made approximately air-tight, but seemingly not so tight as was supposed, by pasting over the apertures of the cover with paper. The result was a failure. *Rhizopertha dominica* was apparently unharmed. As there were many dead beetles present with the living individuals in the rice, the precise percentage could not be accurately determined.^a Average temperature, about 65° F.

Experiment No. 19.—The failure of the first experiment with bisulphid of carbon at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds to 1,000 cubic feet of air space—which was not unexpected—led to the doubling of the strength (3 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet) for the next series of experiments.

In this experiment, started January 7 at 4:30 p. m., the temperature was 68° F., with a minimum of 46° and an average of about 62° for an exposure of 40 hours.

When examined 24 hours after the end of the exposure the insects were all dead.^b

Experiment No. 20.—Conditions the same as for Experiment No. 5 and a duplicate fumigating box. Starting temperatures 55° F., and at the end of 24 hours 58°; average 56°.

Twenty-four hours after the insects were removed from the fumigator and thoroughly aired, many living specimens could be found, showing the experiment to be imperfect. The beetles of *Rhizopertha dominica* were mostly dead, but a very few were alive, although not very active.^c

Experiment No. 21.—The fourth experiment was conducted in a special air-tight fumigating box, the temperature being 45° at the start and 42° at the end of 40 hours. There was, however, a minimum of 36°, and the average temperature was estimated at 42° F.

^a In another bag, in which were specimens of the Indian-meal moth (*Plodia interpunctella* Hübn.) and *Silvanus surinamensis* L., the larvæ of the former and the beetles of the latter were not affected, so far as could be observed, 24 hours after having been removed from the fumigating box. A week later the meal-moth larvæ were found entirely unaffected. *Tribolium navale* Fab., both beetles and larvæ, survived, as did also the larvæ of *Tenebroides mauritanicus* L.

^b Other insects were also exposed, including the adult of *Tenebroides mauritanicus* L., and great numbers of the rice weevil (*Calandra oryza* L.) in wheat.

^c The few individuals of *Silvanus* that were on the outside of the dried figs in which they were working were killed, but those which were protected in the interior were apparently unharmed. The same was true of *Plodia*, all of which were unharmed. Adults of *Tenebroides mauritanicus* were unaffected. Some *Calandras* were the same, and probably no strong individuals were killed.

While a few dead insects could be found, in the main they appeared to be unharmed by the fumigation 24 hours later.

The nonsuccess of this experiment is attributed to the temperature, which kept the insects torpid while exposed to the gas, and bears out the writer's experience, which he has frequently expressed in correspondence for several years.

Experiment No. 22.—Conditions the same as for Experiments Nos. 5 and 6, but strength 2 pounds of bisulphid of carbon to 1,000 cubic feet of air space. Starting temperature, 70° F.; at end of 48 hours, 58° F. During this time the temperature ranged as high as 72° and as low as 50°. The average could not be determined, but at the beginning of the experiment it was probably high long enough for the gas to take effect, while the low temperature occurred probably at a time when it was somewhat immaterial. When the fumigating box was opened at the end of 48 hours the odor of bisulphid was sufficiently strong to attract the attention of several persons in the neighborhood. In this case the beetles of this species, which were living in ground rice for poultry feed, were all destroyed. A number of other insects, six species in all, was confined under the same conditions, and all were killed.

Experiment No. 23.—Conditions the same as in Experiment No. 8, a duplicate fumigating box being used and 2½ pounds of bisulphid of carbon liberated, with same temperature, and exposure the same, namely, 48 hours. Every insect was killed.

Conclusions.—These experiments show conclusively that in inclosures made approximately air-tight, 2 pounds of bisulphid of carbon, with a full exposure of 48 hours in a temperature approximating 65° to 70° F., will prove fatal to the lesser grain-borer, as well as to practically any other stored-product insects.

Summary of experiments.

Experi- ment No.	Reagent.	Proportions.	Conditions.	Tempera- ture (°F.).	Expo- sure.	Results.
1.....	Bisulphid of carbon.....	1 gallon to 2,500 bushels of rice.	Loose rice in bin; bin not tight.	45.....	Hours. 24	Failure.
2.....	do.....	2 gallons to 2,500 bushels of rice.	do.....	45.....	24	Do.
3.....	do.....	2 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	50-gallon glucose barrels used as containers; very tight.	About 48.....	24	Do.
4.....	do.....	4 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	24	Do.
5.....	do.....	5 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	24	Do.
6.....	do.....	6 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	24	Do.
7.....	do.....	7 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	24	Do.
8.....	do.....	8 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	24	Do.
9.....	do.....	10 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	24	Small percentage killed.
10.....	do.....	13 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	24	35 per cent killed.
11.....	do.....	15 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	Sacks of screenings, rough, and brewers' rice in loose and compact stacks in reg- ular storage room.	do.....	24	75 per cent killed.
12.....	Cyanid of soda.....	15 ounces to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	do.....	90	All insects killed.
13.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	24	Insects dead on outside of sacks, 50 per cent dead at depth of 4 inches in rice. Few dead in lower and interior sack.
14.....	do.....	20 ounces to 1,000 cubic feet.	Chicken-feed rice in sacks in tight fumigating room.	49-50.....	48	95 per cent dead in all bags except those having two or more bags between them and outside of pile. 75 per cent dead in well-protected bags.
15.....	do.....	do.....	Clean and rough rice in pockets in tight fumigat- ing room.	49-50.....	24	All dead, except a few in middle of sack that lay at base of fumigating jars.
16.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	49-50.....	48	All killed.
17.....	do.....	do.....	Rough and chicken-feed rice in tight fumigating room.	67-71.....	72	Do.
18.....	Bisulphid of carbon.....	1½ pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	Adults placed in bag in tight fumigating box.	65 average.....	24	Two living adults. Hundreds killed.
19.....	do.....	3 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	62 average.....	48	Failure.
20.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	56 average.....	40	All killed.
21.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	42 average.....	40	Mostly dead.
22.....	do.....	2 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	Adults in bag of chicken- feed rice in tight fumigat- ing box.	50-72.....	40	Apparently unharmed.
23.....	do.....	2½ pounds to 1,000 cubic feet.	do.....	50-72.....	48	All killed.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

The results of the series of experiments performed with bisulphid of carbon and hydrocyanic-acid gas against the lesser grain-borer, and incidentally against other insects, are of considerable value and show in brief the following:

That the lesser grain-borer possesses less resistant power to both gases than do most other stored-product insects.

That fumigations in low temperatures, and especially below 50° F., are practically ineffective unless an excessively large amount of bisulphid of carbon or of a cyanid be used, and that it is still more desirable that from 48 hours to 3 days be the length of exposure in order to kill all insects in even tight inclosures.

Experiment No. 8 shows that even with 10 pounds of bisulphid of carbon to 1,000 cubic feet of space in a tight receptacle only a very small percentage of grain insects were killed in an exposure of 24 hours and with a temperature of about 48° F., and Experiment No. 10 shows that even with 20 pounds of carbon bisulphid to 1,000 cubic feet, or 10 times what may now be accepted as a standard, only 75 per cent of the insects present were destroyed in a 24-hour exposure.

It may be safely assumed that under ordinary conditions, in moderately high temperatures, between 65° and 75° F., 1½ pounds of bisulphid of carbon to 1,000 cubic feet of air space is insufficient even for 48 hours' exposure, and that we may adopt as a general standard 2 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet for 48 hours or more, or until the odor of the gas has become entirely dissipated.

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THE LARGER GRAIN-BORER.

(*Dinoderus truncatus* Horn.)

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTORY.

Brief mention has been made in a preceding article of the larger grain-borer (*Dinoderus truncatus* Horn) (fig. 9), in connection with the lesser grain-borer (*Rhizopertha dominica* Fab.). The larger grain-borer has without doubt been brought into this country from Mexico, Guatemala, and elsewhere on many occasions, but there are only a few published records of such importation. So far as the writer knows, the species has never found permanent lodgment in the United States, but is apt to be introduced into tropical Texas as well as elsewhere. It is not probable that it will be a very serious pest, provided its identity is known and efforts are made to stamp it out wherever it appears. From present knowledge of the insect's habit, it would seem to differ but slightly from the lesser grain-borer, preferring corn to other grain, if indeed it even feeds on any other cereal, and it also has the wood-boring habit strongly developed. Corn in the ear is preferred to shelled corn, and edible and other tubers and roots serve as natural breeding places.

Attention has been called by the writer in correspondence to the difficulty of eradicating this species from a barn, if this should happen to be constructed of wood or, what is worse, adobe.

DESCRIPTION.

Dinoderus truncatus is elongate cylindrical in shape and dark brown or castaneous in color, with paler legs and fulvous antennae. It measures one-sixth inch or less in length and is about two and a half times as long as wide.

The genus *Dinoderus* (from two Greek words signifying *large neck*), in which this and the succeeding species are retained in our American works, was originally characterized by Stephens^a as follows:

^a Illustrations of British Entomology, Mandibulata, vol. 3, p. 352, 1830.

Genus DINODERUS Steph.

Antennæ inserted in front close to the eyes; the basal joint short, robust; the second subglobose; the five following minute, nodose, subcoarctate; the remainder forming an elongate perfoliated club, of which the two basal joints are conic-trigonal, slightly produced within, and the terminal one subglobose, compressed. Palpi short, terminal joint minute, conic; mandibles exerted, acute; head short, transverse, with the neck thick; eyes globose; thorax short, rounded, very gibbous, and rugose in front; elytra retuse posteriorly; body elongate, cylindric; tibiæ compressed, denticulated externally; tarsi short, simple.

For the further identification of this species Horn's original description is quoted.

Dinoderus truncatus Horn.

Rufopiceous, moderately shining, surface sparsely clothed with very short hair. Front moderately, densely punctate. Thorax as wide as long, gradually arcuately narrowed from base to apex, margin very finely serrate, disc anteriorly, roughly granulate, posteriorly, feebly but densely muricate. Elytra with coarse, deep, closely placed punctures, arranged in moderately regular striæ, except near the scutellum, intervals not elevated, declivity abrupt, flat, densely punctate, acutely margined. Body beneath opaque, obsoletely punctate. * * * The marginal ridge of the declivity encloses an exact semicircle, while the face of the declivity is nearly vertical to the axis of the body.

Length 3-4.3 mm., width 1.2-1.8 mm.

With the related species *Rhizopertha dominica*, which has been treated in the preceding paper, the present form, *Dinoderus truncatus*, is not at all likely to be confused. The former is a much smaller insect, proportionately more slender and with a rough surface, whereas the species now being considered is comparatively smooth and somewhat shiny. It has several times been confounded with *D. punctatus* by entomologists. These last two species are alike in form, size, and color, the difference being in minute but distinct structural details. *D. punctatus* appears to confine itself to dead roots and stumps and has not attracted attention, so far as known, by its occurrence indoors.

In some way *truncatus* was entirely overlooked by Gorham in his consideration of the Ptinidæ (including Bostrychidæ) in the Biologia Centrali-Americana, but *pusillus* (*dominica*), *substriatus*, and *punctatus* are included. In the United States National Museum are two specimens of *truncatus* labeled, respectively, "In rice, Guatemala, March 11, '84," and "*Apatæ dubius* E. Dug." The species is obviously common enough in Central America, and it is not impossible that Gorham failed to separate *truncatus* from *punctatus*.

The accompanying illustration (fig. 9) shows the characteristic structure of the beetle at *a*; *b* represents the larva which, it will be noted, strongly resembles better known bostrychids, such as the red-

shouldered hickory beetle and the apple twig-borer: "c" represents the pupa, ventral view. The larva and pupa are white.

Unfortunately, at the time that the illustration was drawn neither larva nor pupa was described, and the material preserved is not now in fit condition for a technical description.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE.

Dinoderus truncatus was described as a new species in 1878, from specimens accidentally found in California.¹ It was accidentally brought to this country with corn for exhibition in the Mexican section of the New Orleans Exposition in 1885. In 1893 the writer obtained specimens of this insect in corn and edible roots from the Mexican and Guatemalan exhibits at the World's Columbian Exposition, held in Chicago that year.^{2 3 4}

In 1894 about half a peck of samples of Mexican corn that had been ruined by this insect was received in this department. The samples in both cases, as well as in many others that have come to the notice of the writer, were fairly reduced to powder. In the case of corn, the insects bore through and through the kernels, the cob, and the husk, and where paper wrappings and labels are

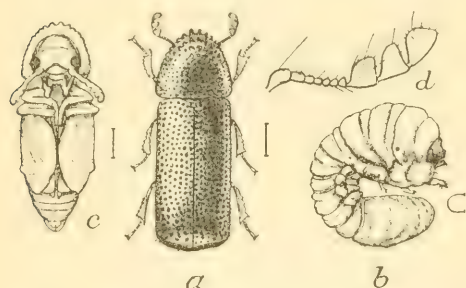


FIG. 9.—The larger grain-borer (*Dinoderus truncatus*): a, Adult or beetle; b, larva; c, pupa; d, antenna. a, b, c, About six times natural size; d, highly magnified. (Original.)

used they also perforate these. Since that time this insect has been received from other sources.

December 3, 1902, Mr. A. L. Herrera, of the City of Mexico, sent a sample of stored corn from Tlaxiaco, State of Oaxaca, infested with this and other species of insects which are identified with injury of this nature in Central America.

Specimens were also received, November 19, 1909, from Mr. G. C. Beckmann, Parral, Province of Chihuahua, with report that they, with *Silvanus surinamensis* L. and *Tribolium confusum* Duv., were injurious to the ears of maize.

OFFICE EXPERIMENTS.

Owing to the fact that it was known at the time of receipt of living specimens that the insect had not been introduced into the United States, only a limited number of experiments were made lest the

^a *Sinoxylon basulare* Say and *Amphicerus bicaudatus* Say.

insect might have an opportunity to escape from confinement. A number of adults, 14 in all, were placed, on June 21, in a rearing jar containing an ear of corn. At the end of two months the ear, including the cob, was fully half destroyed, and later the bored ear was converted into dust and other débris.

A similar number of beetles was confined in a rearing jar with shelled corn, June 25. Late in the afternoon and the following morning three kernels of corn were found to have been entered, two having been bored entirely through. Figure 10 shows the work of the beetle in a kernel of corn.

These experiments show the rapidity with which the adults work, as also partiality for corn in the ear, the insect scarcely being at home in shelled corn, while in other material with which it was fed in other experiments the insect did not breed at all.

There seems little doubt that the grain-feeding habit of this species is an acquired one of comparatively recent times, and that it normally, or under natural conditions, breeds in roots and tubers.

During the course of these experiments it was ascertained that the pupal stage varied from about four and one-half days in the very hottest weather to six days in a little cooler weather during June and July, while in October the pupal period lasted twelve days, from October 17 to 29. The egg was not observed, but the egg period is with little doubt about the same as for the pupa under the same atmospheric conditions. By experiment it was learned that the entire life cycle from the placing of beetles in corn until the issuance of the new generation, i. e., from August 25 to October 9, was forty-five days, or about six and one-half weeks. The temperature was moderately warm during this period.

Still another experiment was made with this species by confining it with some others in a superheated atmosphere, which was also very dry. As evidence of its tropical nature this species thrived better than any of the other insects exposed to the same conditions. Indeed, it appears to be the only insect that did not suffer from the extreme dryness to which it was subjected. The temperature in this case was upward of 100° F. and ran as high as 115° F.

The limited supply of this species did not permit of any experiments with remedies. As has already been briefly pointed out in the introduction, it is an insect which should be carefully watched if it once gains access to a granary or other storehouse, as it is apt to do considerable injury to the woodwork, perforating it with holes even when grain is available for food. Undoubtedly bisulphid of carbon,



FIG. 10.—Kernel of corn showing work of beetle of larger grain-borer (*Dinoderus truncatus*). Enlarged. (Original.)

hydrocyanic-acid gas, and other fumigants will destroy this insect in the same manner as they kill the lesser grain-borer, grain weevils, grain beetles, and flour beetles.

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655.673

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96, Part IV.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

CARBON TETRACHLORID AS A SUBSTITUTE
FOR CARBON BISULPHID IN FUMIGA-
TION AGAINST INSECTS.

BY

F. H. CHITTENDEN,

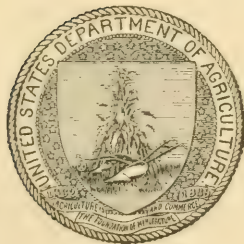
In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations,

AND

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ISSUED OCTOBER 12, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1911.

655.673

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TRUCK CROP AND STORED PRODUCT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

F. H. CHITTENDEN, *in charge.*

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction	53
Experiments at Washington, D. C.	54
Experiments at Baltimore, Md	55
Comparative cost of carbon bisulphid and carbon tetrachlorid	56
Conclusions	57

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

CARBON TETRACHLORID AS A SUBSTITUTE FOR CARBON BISULPHID IN FUMIGATION AGAINST INSECTS.

By F. H. CHITTENDEN,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations,

and

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INTRODUCTION.

A representative of a chemical company in Baltimore, Md., suggested to the senior writer as early as 1905 the use of carbon tetrachlorid (CCl_4) as a possible substitute for carbon bisulphid (CS_2), since the tetrachlorid is known to be noninflammable. A sample was kindly furnished and was thoroughly tested in the open and found, as claimed, to be noninflammable. No opportunity, however, was afforded at that time to make a detailed series of tests of its insecticidal properties.

A druggist of Washington, D. C., also suggested the substitution of this chemical for carbon bisulphid, and as others had made similar suggestions a series of experiments was begun on a small scale at Washington, D. C., under the senior author's direction, by the junior author and by Mr. D. K. McMillan.

Carbon tetrachlorid, when pure, is a thin, transparent, colorless, oily fluid, with a pungent, aromatic odor—not powerful, however, as in the case of carbon bisulphid, and not nearly so disagreeable. It is manufactured by the combination, in a heated tube, of the vapors of carbon bisulphid and chlorine. It has a specific gravity about one-third greater than carbon bisulphid, and is similar in other properties, with the exception of being noninflammable.

There are records of experiments made with this chemical as a fumigant for nursery trees in 1908, but tests for stored products affected with insects were made more recently. One of the former records is by Dr. W. E. Britton,¹ who states that carbon tetrachlorid was used at rates of from 1 to 8 ounces in a fumigating box containing 10 cubic feet of space, the fumigating period varying from 2 to 6 hours. All scales were killed, and no trees were injured, where

¹ Journ. Econ. Ent., vol. 1, p. 111, 1908.

30 ounces or less of the liquid to 100 cubic feet were used, with a fumigating period of two hours. Greater quantities of the liquid caused injury and killed some of the trees. In these experiments the liquid was also volatilized by means of heated pans. In conclusion Dr. Britton states that in his experience it proved noninflammable, but that it is not very poisonous to the *higher* forms of animal life.

This compound seems first to have been employed as a substitute for carbon bisulphid as a fumigant for structures containing grain and similar products infested by insects by Prof. Albert P. Morse, Wellesley, Mass., who published an account of the result in February, 1910.¹ He used it against *Attagenus*, presumably *A. piceus*, as this is the only species of the genus commonly found in the United States. It was employed in a standard museum case which closed tightly, and the strength was 1 quart to 50 cubic feet, which Prof. Morse claims is only twice the strength at which carbon bisulphid is used. In practical use, in perfectly tight inclosures, 1 pound of pure carbon bisulphid to 1,000 cubic feet of space will destroy some insects, but perhaps not the dermestids which affect stored products.

EXPERIMENTS AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

Experiment No. 1.—July 27, 1908, a quantity of rye was subjected to treatment with carbon tetrachlorid at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds to each 1,000 cubic feet. The grain, which was infested with the rice weevil (*Calandra oryza* L.), the saw-toothed grain beetle (*Silvanus surinamensis* L.), and a smaller grain beetle (*Læmophlæus minutus* Oliv.), was closed and left for 48 hours. It was then opened and the insects of the different species were found to be living and in good condition. The experiment was therefore a failure.

Experiment No. 2.—A similar quantity of the same grain with the same insects was fumigated 48 hours with carbon tetrachlorid at the rate of 3 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet. At the end of this time all the beetles present were alive and in good condition.

In these two experiments a closed tin receptacle with air-tight top was used and quantities of the chemical greater than the ordinary amounts of carbon bisulphid for air-tight inclosures were applied. It seems, therefore, that the insecticidal quality of this liquid, if present, is decidedly less than that of carbon bisulphid.

Experiment No. 3.—October 6, 1908, a quantity of grain practically equivalent to that used in previous tests was subjected to treatment with carbon tetrachlorid at the rate of 6 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet, or double the amount used in experiment No. 2. Living specimens of the confused flour beetle (*Tribolium confusum* Duv.), with a few rust-red flour beetles (*T. navale* Fab.), *Silvanus surinamensis* L., *Calandra oryza* L., and *C. granaria* L., the cadelle (*Tene-*

¹ Journ. Econ. Ent., vol. 3, p. 104, 1910.

broides mauritanicus L.) present as larva, and the larva of the Indian-meal moth (*Plodia interpunctella* Hbn.) and of the Mediterranean flour moth (*Ephestia kuehniella* Zell.) were included, as well as adults of the related fig moth (*Ephestia cautella* Walk.). The flour-moth and the fig-moth larvæ were working in a small mass of bran and flour well matted with silk. The quantity of material was about 1 pound, loosely inclosed in a cheesecloth bag.

The fumigating box was closed at 3 p. m. October 6, and calked around the edges of the lid with cotton wadding. After being closed for half an hour no escape of fumes could be noticed. The box was opened at 3.30 p. m. October 7. The fumes of the tetrachlorid were very strong; hence the escape of fumes must have been slight.

The material was all taken out and exposed in the fresh air in the outside insectary until the following day, but immediate superficial examination showed all insects motionless except the larvæ of *Tenebroides*, which moved slowly when touched. Final examination showed: Flour-moth adults dead; a few examples of their larvæ dead, but the greater number living. The *Tenebroides* larvæ were unharmed. The flour and grain beetles and the two grain weevils were nearly all living but moving their antennæ or legs very feebly, seeming to be in a paralyzed condition. Numerous examples were placed in a vial with a small amount of flour and stoppered with cotton. On October 16 a few of these were still moving legs or antennæ slightly, but seemed paralyzed and not able to recover.

Experiment No. 4.—This was a repetition of No. 3 in most of the details, except that 10 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet were used. The four-spotted bean weevil (*Pachymerus quadrimaculatus* Fab.) was included in a small sack of beans. About half the quantity of material containing the flour-moth larvæ was taken.

The box was closed at 3 p. m. and carefully calked with cotton. October 17, at 3 p. m., or 24 hours later, the box was opened and the contents freely exposed to the air. All of the bean weevils and other beetles seemed to be dead, but the cadelle larvæ moved slightly when touched, though they were not active. Forty-eight hours after opening all were dead except a few larvæ of *Tenebroides*.

If the material were a cheap product it might prove a substitute for carbon bisulphid if used in strengths greater than 10 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet. Possibly fumigation for a longer time might increase the effectiveness, but it is most obviously not so fatal as is carbon bisulphid.

EXPERIMENTS AT BALTIMORE, MD.

Experiment No. 5.—October 25, 1910, a quantity of shelled corn stored in a new concrete elevator in Baltimore, Md., was reported by Dr. J. W. T. Duvel, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, to be quite badly attacked by weevils which had worked to such an extent that

the temperature had increased from 76° to 90° F. An examination of the corn showed extensive damage by the granary weevil (*Calandra granaria* L.), while *Cænocorse ratzeburgi* Wissm. and *Læmophilæus minutus* Oliv. were also present in some numbers. Since the bin was of concrete and capable of being tightly closed, the opportunity was taken by the junior author for a thorough trial of carbon tetrachlorid as a fumigant. The bin was a trifle over 6 feet square and 75 feet in depth, giving a capacity of approximately 3,000 cubic feet. A dose of 15 pounds of tetrachlorid was poured over the grain from the top of the bin, the grain, 1,300 bushels in all, extending nearly to the top of the bin. The bin was closed and left for four days. October 29, when opened, a slight odor of gas remained. The grain was run over a No. 8 screen and the estimate of mortality made from the insects found. No living *Cænocorse* or *Silvanus* were observed. About 50 to 60 per cent of the *Calandras* were killed, the remainder being very stupid after the screening and thorough airing.

The weevils in this case were left in separate jars for a number of days afterwards in order to ascertain if recovery took place later, but no difference in the number killed was noted.

Experiment No. 6.—A second fumigation was applied early in November, the fumigant being used in the same bin, but at the rate of 9 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet. At this rate the poison was applied in five layers, 250 bushels of corn being run into the bin between applications of 5 pounds each of carbon tetrachlorid. The bin was closed 5 days, then the corn was run over a No. 6 screen, and specimens of weevils collected from the screenings. In this treatment about 90 per cent of the weevils, which by this time consisted almost entirely of *Calandra granaria*, were killed.

Specimens were exposed for recovery but failed to do so. The odor of carbon tetrachlorid was strongly noticeable while the corn was being screened and the gas was apparently well distributed through the corn. This experiment would indicate that carbon tetrachlorid is much less valuable as an insecticide than the bisulphid. The tetrachlorid used was purchased in the open market in Baltimore, at a cost of 28 cents a pound.

COMPARATIVE COST OF CARBON TETRACHLORID AND CARBON BISULPHID.

Inquiry of the Bureau of Chemistry in regard to the comparative cost of these chemicals elicited the reply that the contract prices for supplies for the Department of Agriculture for the year ending June 30, 1909, quoted carbon bisulphid at \$0.11 a pound (quality not designated) to \$0.28 a pound (chemically pure), while carbon tetrachlorid was quoted from \$0.45 to \$1 a pound. Prices in the Oil, Paint and

Drug Reporter December 1, 1908, were carbon bisulphid 5 to 7 cents a pound, and carbon tetrachlorid $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 16 cents a pound wholesale. These last quotations represent prices in bulk, and variation is evidently dependent upon the quantity desired.

CONCLUSIONS.

For all practical purposes it will readily be seen that carbon tetrachlorid at the rate of 28 cents a pound costs fully three or four times as much as carbon bisulphid and, in the case of purchase at retail drug stores, probably on an average of two to three times as much. Considering the strength at which it is to be used, it is very obvious that this chemical, unless it can be manufactured at a much lower price, can not be as economically employed as a remedy for insects injurious to stored products in warehouses, mills, or in any other depository, but might be used for choice seeds or in office rooms and dwellings, which can be very tightly closed and where the use of inflammable materials is prohibited or is for other reasons undesirable.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,

BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96, Part V.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE BROAD-BEAN WEEVIL.

BY

F. H. CHITTENDEN, SC. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

[With Reports by WM. B. PARKER, *Agent.*]

ISSUED AUGUST 6, 1912.



222846

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE,
1912.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introductory.....	59
Description.....	59
The adult.....	59
The egg.....	61
The postembryonic larva.....	61
Distribution.....	62
Records of occurrence.....	62
Notes on occurrence in California, by Wm. B. Parker, <i>agent</i>	64
Alleged poisonous nature of the weevil.....	66
Germination of seed.....	68
Germination tests in Europe.....	68
Germination test of infested Windsor beans from California.....	69
Summary of nature of attack and life history.....	70
Literature and history.....	72
Natural enemies.....	72
Experiments with remedies, by Wm. B. Parker, <i>agent</i>	74
Exposure to heat of sun as a remedy.....	74
Hot-water treatment.....	74
Methods of control.....	75
Bibliography.....	80

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
FIG. 11. The broad-bean weevil (<i>Laria rufimana</i>): Adult or beetle.....	60
12. The pea weevil (<i>Laria pisorum</i>): Beetle, larva, and pupa.....	60
13. The broad-bean weevil: Photomicrograph of egg.....	61
14. The broad-bean weevil: Egg.....	61
15. The broad-bean weevil: Apical crest of head of postembryonic larva.	61
16. Broad beans infested by the broad-bean weevil, showing empty exit holes of beetles, closed exit holes, and open exit holes in which beetles are still present.....	70
17. Broad beans split to show ravages made by larvæ of the broad-bean weevil above, and by larvæ and adults below, the latter leaving large pupal cases at the ends of the beans.....	71
18. Broad bean cut in half to show, at top on left, pupal cell of the broad- bean weevil; at right, cell containing predaceous mite (<i>Pediculoides</i> <i>ventricosus</i>).....	73
19. <i>Pediculoides ventricosus</i> : Gravid female.....	73
20. Fumigator used for stored products infested by insects.....	79

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE BROAD-BEAN WEEVIL.

(Larid rufimana Boh.)

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.[With Reports by WM. B. PARKER, *Agent.*]

INTRODUCTORY.

This species, which is commonly known as the bean beetle or bean-seed beetle in Europe, where it has been a pest for a great many years, has frequently been brought to the United States and Canada in its food supply. Until the year 1909, however, there was no positive proof known to the writer of its ever having been introduced into North America. This is most remarkable considering the number of times that it has been imported living—almost yearly in all probability—and that the species is so well established in Europe, where it is a common and destructive pest. It especially infests broad beans, and, it is said, peas and some other legumes. Broad beans, it might be explained, are also known under the names of horse, Windsor, tick, and “English Dwarf” beans. During 1909 and since, this species has become established in several localities in California, and bids fair to become a most formidable drawback to the cultivation of broad beans in that State, if not in the entire country where this crop is raised.

DESCRIPTION.

THE ADULT.

The species under consideration, *Larid rufimana* Boh., although very closely related to the pea weevil (*L. pisorum* L.), is readily separable by the following characters, expressed in tabular form:

Posterior femora acutely dentate; thorax broad; pattern of elytra well defined; pygidium with a pair of distinct apical black spots.....	<i>pisorum</i> L.
Posterior femora obtusely or obsoletely dentate; thorax narrow; pattern of elytra more or less suffused; pygidium with black apical spots lacking or illy defined,	

rufimana Boh.

While there is no great difference in the size of the two species, *pisorum* averages a little larger. The following technical description of *rufimana* is adapted from Horn:

Oblong oval, black, subopaque. Head black, densely punctulate, sparsely clothed with ochreous pubescence. Antennæ black, four basal joints rufous. Thorax wider than long, sides moderately rounded in front of tooth, sinuate behind it, tooth at middle obtuse, moderately prominent; surface opaque, densely punctate, and with a small whitish triangular space in front of scutellum. Scutellum subquadrate, emarginate at apex, sparsely clothed with cinereous hairs. Elytra longer than wide, feebly convex, sides moderately rounded, surface more shining than the thorax, moderately striate, intervals flat, densely punctulate, and with the basal margin, base of suture, and two irregular transverse bands of whitish hairs. Pygidium clothed with cinereous hairs and with two nearly obsolete oblong black spots. Body beneath black, densely punctulate, and clothed with cinereous hairs. Anterior legs rufous, except their tarsi, apex of tibiae, and base of femora, which are piceous. Middle and posterior legs black.

Length: 0.14–0.18 inch (3.5–4.5 mm.); width: 0.8 inch (2.4 mm.).

The synonymy of this species is as follows:

Laria rufimana Boh.

Bruchus rufimanus Boh., Schœnherr, Gen. et Spec. Curculionidum, vol. 1, p. 58, 1833.

Bruchus granarius auct. (*non* Linnaeus), Westwood, Curtis, Ormerod, Wood, Riley, Fletcher, Lintner, *et al.*

Mylabris rufimana Boh., Baudi, Deutsch. Ent. Zeitschr., 1880, p. 404.

The *Bruchus granarius* L. is *Laria atomaria* L.; Syst. Nat., 12th ed., p. 605, 1766–1768.

The beetle is shown in figure 11, and figure 12, representing the pea weevil, is introduced for comparison.



FIG. 11.—The broad-bean weevil (*Laria rufimana*): Adult or beetle. Enlarged. (Original.)

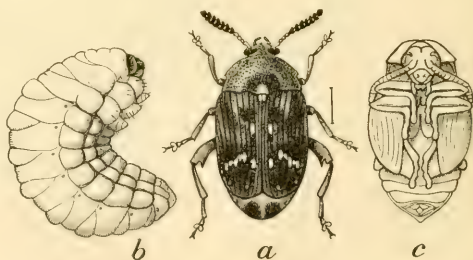


FIG. 12.—The pea weevil (*Laria pisorum*): a, Beetle; b, larva; c, pupa. Enlarged. Author's illustration.

From Mr. I. J. Condit, San Luis Obispo, Cal., under date of April 18, 1911, were received the eggs of this species found on young pods of the broad or horse bean (*Vicia faba*). The pods were just beginning to form in many cases, some being as long as 2 inches. In some cases as many as nine eggs were found on one small pod and one was observed on the withered calyx lobe of the flower. Few beetles were observed and none was detected in the direct act of oviposition. Evidently this is accomplished mainly at night.

THE EGG.

The eggs are deposited upon the outside of the pod, usually without reference to the position of the young beans, and are firmly attached to the epidermis by a glutinous, adhesive secretion, which usually remains as an enveloping border or fringe, as shown in figures 13 and 14. They are deposited singly over the surface of the pods. As many as nine may be deposited upon a single pod, although from four to six appear to be more usual in the cases observed.

The egg is elliptical-ovate, about twice as long as wide, rounded at the extremities, and somewhat more pointed anteriorly. The surface is smooth and polished, without visible sculpture. In color it is clear greenish yellow when fresh, but just before hatching the dark head of the embryonic larva becomes plainly visible through the thin shell. It is 0.55 to 0.60 mm. in length by 0.25 to 0.28 mm. in width.

The description of the egg was made from specimens just before hatching and the greenish color may have been absorbed from beneath, since Mr. Condit states that the egg when first seen is watery white, glistening in the light. It is large and, like the eggs of our other injurious Lariidæ, plainly visible to the unaided eye.

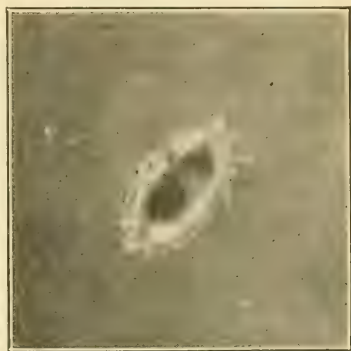


FIG. 13.—The broad-bean weevil: Photomicrograph of egg. (Original.)



FIG. 14.—The broad-bean weevil: Egg. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

THE POSTEMBRYONIC LARVA.

The young larva emerges through a round hole in the underside of the egg and bores at once into the young beans, going directly through the pod.

When first hatched it is pale yellow, with brownish or blackish head and mouth-parts. Except in the shape of the prothoracic spinous processes, it differs little from the larva of the pea weevil (*Larix pisorum* L.). These processes are shown in figure 15.

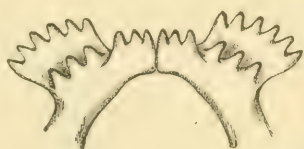


FIG. 15.—The broad-bean weevil: Apical crest of head of postembryonic larva. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

DISTRIBUTION.

The distribution of this weevil in Europe is given by late authority as middle and southern. The species is also known to be established in Austria, Spain, Italy, southern France, Sardinia, the Crimea, Egypt, Syria, Algeria, and Tunis, and it has long been credited with being a pest in England. It is also recorded from Teneriffe, Canary Islands.

During 1893 the writer found this species commonly in many exhibits of broad or Windsor beans at the World's Columbian Exposition held at Chicago, Ill., during that year; indeed, the exhibits of these last two varieties of seed were almost invariably badly infested or showed evidence of attack of greater or less severity. Specimens of the beetles were taken, mostly dead, in the exhibits of Algeria, Tunis, Spain, and Italy, but some beans damaged by this species were taken in other exhibits, for example, some purporting to come from Porto Rico—perhaps a mistake.

Reports have several times been made of the finding of this species in seeds in various portions of our country, from portions of Canada, and southward to Texas.

The following reason why the species has not before been established in America permanently may be deduced. This weevil, like the pea weevil (*Larid pisorum* L.), produces, as does that species, only a single generation a year and hibernates as an adult in the seeds. Thus the chances are that after the seeds are collected and exported to this country the contained insects are subjected to so much handling and agitation in different ways as to interfere with their proper hibernation, so that by the time the bean plant has attained sufficient growth to produce pods, the beetles are mostly dead or too feeble to propagate. At least this seems to be the case in the Atlantic region and Middle States.

RECORDS OF OCCURRENCE.

September 18, 1909, Mr. I. J. Condit, collaborator of the Bureau of Entomology at San Luis Obispo, Cal., sent living specimens of this weevil in horse beans (*Vicia faba*), which are now being grown quite extensively in that region for feeding stock. They are commonly planted early and are ready to harvest in January or February. Some were planted late, about March 1, but did not produce well on account of the dry season following. When ready for harvest they were found to be infested with this weevil; on account of this and the small size of the pods and beans they were not gathered.

This is without doubt the first notice that we have of the establishment of this species in America. All other records, so far as the writer knows, are of the occurrence of the insect in samples of seed introduced, usually from Europe, into the more northern States and

seldom farther south than Washington, D. C. Unless the insects are dead when received, the active ones die long before the next crop of seed is ready for harvest; in other words, there is no food supply for them, as they do not breed continuously in dry seed, but produce only a single generation a year, as in the case of the related pea weevil (*Larid pisorum* L.).

Thus it happens that although this weevil has probably been brought to this country in seeds every few years for a very considerable period, it has not hitherto become established in the United States. Western conditions are different, and the above notes furnished by Mr. Condit require no further elucidation.

Among the notes of the Bureau of Entomology are many records, more or less brief, of the receipt of this species in seed beans from a number of localities.

May 14, 1894, this species was received from Prof. R. H. Price, College Station, Tex., in beans.

In 1900 (February 9) Mr. A. J. Pieters, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, received this species in broad beans (*Vicia faba*) from Italy.

In 1907 this species was received, December 17, from Reading, England, in a lot of 30 pounds of broad beans containing also a parasite, *Sigalphus* sp.

In 1909 this species was received from several sources. March 8, horse beans infested by this species were received from Mr. Mortimer D. Leonard, New York City, with inquiry if investigations had been made in regard to the insect, which had evidently been introduced from Italy with the beans. September 18 of that year, as has previously been mentioned, we received the insect from San Luis Obispo, Cal.—a record of actual establishment of the species in America. October 4 it was received from Magyar-Obar, Hungary, in horse beans; October 15, from Mr. H. C. Moore, Watsonville, Cal., in horse beans—a second report of occurrence in the United States. October 5 the insect was taken from the seeds of *Vicia faba* collected in California, and from a lot imported from Italy in samples rejected by the United States customs officials as adulterated. October 30, badly infested beans containing this species were received from Italy through the Bureau of Chemistry. During the same year specimens were received from Valencia, Spain.

April 20, 1910, Mr. M. L. Peairs, of the Maryland Agricultural College, reported that a shipment of horse beans seized at the Baltimore customhouse was infested by weevils. The beans were traced to a firm in Berlin, Germany. The samples were infested to the amount of 50 per cent. Identification in this case was made by an assistant, Mr. C. H. Popenoe. Other seizures have been made of this weevil by the Bureau of Chemistry in New York City. Efforts were made to ascertain whether the species was present in other localities

in California, with some success. Thus far indications are that the beans have all been introduced by individuals or firms and not by the Federal or State Governments. Some of these cases have attained considerable newspaper notoriety from the alleged report that the insects were poisonous, a matter which will be taken up later. May 24 this insect was received from Elisaneptol, Caucasus, Russia. In June it was received from Rhodesia, South Africa. Later additional specimens were received from San Luis Obispo, Cal., and February 2, and later in 1911, specimens were received from Sacramento, Cal., collected by Mr. Wm. B. Parker, an agent of this bureau. They were taken in local stores, and were collected in a garden just outside of the city.

In nearly all of these records the insect occurred in broad beans, but in a few cases the records read simply "in beans."

In discussing the introduction of this species into California, and the seizure by the Bureau of Chemistry of horse beans infested by the weevil in New York City, Mr. David Fairchild, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, with whom the writer conferred, desired to know the exact localities other than San Luis Obispo in which the species was known to have become introduced. During the discussion of the advisability of excluding further introductions of the horse bean by firms and private individuals in the Eastern United States, it became apparent that some measure should be enacted, if possible, to prevent the introduction of the beans from California eastward, as there is a greater probability of the introduction of the pest into the Eastern States in beans from California than in beans from abroad.

Altogether, the further introduction of this seed, when infested by living weevils, either from abroad or from California, should be stopped if possible or Federal inspection of all seeds should be made, that the seed stock may be properly fumigated. The California authorities might be empowered to act, but there is no means provided for Federal inspection other than that by the Bureau of Chemistry under the provisions for inspection under the pure food and drugs act of 1906.

NOTES ON OCCURRENCE IN CALIFORNIA.

By WM. B. PARKER, *Agent*.

March 25, 1911, the beetle was first observed and captured on Windsor beans at Sacramento, Cal. The beans ranged in height from 3 to 3½ feet and were in full bloom. Pods of various lengths were present, the longest measuring 3 inches.

By March 30, beetles were active, flying from leaf to leaf or from blossom to blossom and running about on the plants. They were not observed to feed or deposit eggs, although watched closely.

A resident of Sacramento who had some beans in his yard stated that the seed was infested when planted, and that a lot of seed was sent to Mr. Henry R. Russell, Richey, Amador County, Cal., and was planted that spring.

On April 15, the first warm day since April 1, 15 adults were captured on Windsor beans and placed in paper bags over growing beans in order to obtain eggs. While in the bags two pairs were observed copulating and one pair was confined for further observation.

Eggs were observed April 22, cemented to the outside of the bean, and when removed with a camel's-hair brush a fringe of cement was observed attached to the side of the egg.

Many eggs were observed April 25, scattered promiscuously over the pods. Some were nearly ready to hatch, but the greater number were newly laid. No eggs were found on the stems or leaves.

The number of eggs on the various pods were as follows: 4, 8, 5, 15, 2, 3, 16, 10, 6, 3, 2, 4, 2, 8, 2, 5, 6, 7, 5, 10, 11, 34, 11, 14, 25, 10, 6, 20, 27, and 13.

A few adults were observed on the bean pods April 28. They were apparently ovipositing, though the act could not be witnessed. A few seen on the upper leaves were captured, placed in cold storage, and retained for egg laying. Four days later they were removed, and eggs were obtained.

It was observed that the adults, when disturbed, either flew away or contracted their legs and dropped, much as do other weevils when feigning death, but began moving again before they had struck anything in their fall.

May 1, eggs that had undoubtedly hatched were observed to have a dark or black-edged hole under one end, the larva having entered the pod by boring a hole through the side of the eggshell that was attached to the pod and then into the pod itself.

Sixteen eggs were laid May 4. On May 16, distinct dark spots were observed in the ends of the eggs, while the other ends were translucent brownish. The dark spots were very distinct on the 18th, and on the 19th a few eggs had hatched, while others were hatching. All larvæ had emerged by May 20. The egg period in this case was 15 days.

The first hatched egg of those laid May 5 was observed on May 18. Others had hatched May 19. Of the eggs laid May 6 to 7, the first was observed to have hatched on May 18. All but one were hatched on May 19.

These eggs were laid in the field, the adults being inclosed in paper bags which were kept over the eggs as a protection against predaceous insects.

In emerging from the egg the larva was first observed to draw its head back so that the body occupied about three-fourths of the shell. Then it bored down through the side of the shell which was attached to the bean pod, and as the larva entered the pod the end of the egg previously occupied by the abdomen became clear, and finally the entire shell was glassy and transparent in appearance. Just before emerging the head of the larva was quite black and the abdomen seen through the eggshell appeared yellowish.

On July 10, larvæ were observed to be thriving in the beans taken from the vines at Sacramento, Cal., June 20, though the beans were perfectly dry.

August 3, larvæ and pupæ were taken from Windsor beans that were collected in the field at Sacramento June 20. Although some of the larvæ had pupated, they had apparently been in that stage only a very short time. They were pure white and very delicate.

The point where the larva entered the bean was marked by a black dot which had remained from the time that the larva entered.

When the larva was about to pupate a transparent spot appeared on the epidermis of the bean where the larva had eaten out the cotyledon close to the epidermis or seed coat. This transparent spot was not at the point where the larva had entered the bean, but at varying distances from that point.

ALLEGED POISONOUS NATURE OF THE WEEVIL.

The New York Times, under date of September 28, 1909, printed, under the heading "Poisoned Bug Holds Up Imports of Beans," the following "story." The description given shows plainly that *Bruchus rufimanus* is the insect in question.

MANY CUSTOMS LABORERS MADE ILL BY BITE OF LITTLE PESTS FROM ITALY.—INVESTIGATION IS ORDERED.

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT AND BOARD OF HEALTH CALLED IN—VICTIMS OF BITES DEMAND COMPENSATION.

The local pure food office of the Agricultural Department and the board of health have been asked to investigate the coming to this port of a small gray-winged bug that threatens to stop the importation of a certain kind of bean from Italy. This insect has caused so much illness among the laborers and weighers who handle the beans that the matter has been officially brought to the attention of Surveyor Clarkson. He has called for an investigation, and meanwhile has held up a large importation of the beans until a decision shall be reached.

For some time the authorities have received complaint that a small insect brought from Italy with a dried bean, much like our butter bean and called by the men who handle them as "horse" or "fly" beans, was causing the discomfiture of the men handling them. A few days ago three men became so ill that they had to remain at home under the care of physicians. At first the cause of the malady was a mystery, but the men soon became convinced that the bugs were the cause of it. Sixty-three bags of the beans which arrived here on the *Europa* are known to have brought the pests, and the consignment now held up consists of 125 bags, which arrived recently on the *Virginia*.

The insect is of gray color, about the size of half a pea, with wings that fold closely on its back. When first disclosed in the bean the bug is apparently lifeless. It soon revives, however, and begins to crawl or take short flights. It crawls up the trousers of the men who handle the beans and bites them, the effect being a feeling of nausea. In addition to this a rash appears on the affected parts.

The officers of the Pure Food Bureau have taken specimens of the bug, and are now making tests to prove that it is the bug which causes the strange illness.

The men who have the handling of the importations upon the piers and weighers are almost in revolt, and some have petitioned the collector and the surveyor requesting that their doctor's bills be paid, setting up the claim that they are entitled to remuneration as having been infected while in the performance of their duty. They also want pay for lost time, and the matter has been referred to the Treasury Department for decision.

It was said yesterday that the importers to whom the shipments are consigned have protested against the action of the department in holding up their goods.

ALLEGED POISONOUS NATURE DUE TO MITES.

While the writer has not seen any statement to the effect that this weevil is attacked by the predaceous mite *Pediculoides ventricosus* Newport, nevertheless it seems highly probable that the trouble just related may have been due to the presence of this mite in the broad beans affected by the weevil, this supposition being based on the fact.

that the writer has observed the mite in great numbers attacking and destroying the related bean and cowpea weevils.^a

A detailed account of this species with particular relation to its proving noxious to human beings is given by Prof. F. M. Webster in a recent publication of this Bureau.^b

The writer feels no hesitation in stating that this mite is undoubtedly a parasite of the weevil in question and that it has merely been overlooked by observers, since it is known to prey upon insects of several orders.^c

The Lariidæ (Bruchidæ) are not classified among poisonous insects, but there are many recorded and unrecorded cases of injury due to insects of the same order; for example, the Meloidæ or blister beetles poison slightly and blisters rise on the bitten places. It is seldom, however, that a human being is bitten more than once or twice at the same time. Several genera of the Buprestidæ, another well-known family of beetles, are frequently accused of biting human beings in the same manner as the Meloidæ, usually on the neck, and they even cause some irritation (but no poison whatever, so far as we know) when they are very abundant in lumber camps.^d

It is more to the point, however, that we received, March 5, 1909, from Messrs. B. F. Ellington & Co., Atlanta, Tex., examples of two lariids, the four-spotted bean weevil [*Bruchus*] (*Pachymerus quadrimaculatus* Fab.) and the common bean weevil ([*Bruchus*] *Acanthoscelides obtectus* Say), with report that when the infested cowpea seed was being handled, the little insects sometimes covered the bodies of the workmen, raising "wheels" or bumps and actually causing fever.

Under the circumstances, it seems quite probable that when any of this group of weevils occur in great abundance and obtain access to many portions of a human body, the bite may cause considerable irritation, but probably not to all of those having the handling of the infested seed. The fact is established that many persons are poisoned by the attacks of certain insects, while others are immune, or practically so, to insects which more or less habitually sting or bite human beings.^e

^a U. S. Dept. Agr., Yearbook for 1898, p. 247, 1899.

^b Cir. 118, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., "A predaceous mite proves noxious to man (*Pediculoides ventricosus* Newport)," pp. 1-24, Apr. 23, 1910.

^c After the above was written Mr. Wm. B. Parker reported this species of mite preying upon *Laria rufimana* in California.

^d Frequent reports have been made of the biting, or more properly speaking, piercing, of exposed portions of human beings by various forms of leafhoppers, and many bugs of the suborder Heteroptera are poisonous when attacking susceptible persons. The list could be considerably prolonged.

^e Thus, one person whom we may designate as *A* does not suffer more than a momentary inconvenience by the bite or sting of mosquitoes and bedbugs. On the other hand, he practically suffers torture from the attacks of fleas and chiggers, the wheels caused by the two insects being of about the same size, usually about that of a dime and persisting for one or two weeks and sometimes even longer, and causing uneasi-

GERMINATION OF SEED.

The opinion, which was very generally held, that the larvæ of bean and pea weevils avoid the germ or embryo, and hence do not cause serious deterioration of the germinating power of the seed, seems to have been more prevalent in Europe in the case of this species than it is now, by seedsmen in America, in the case of related weevils.

GERMINATION TESTS IN EUROPE.

Having doubts as to the value of infested seed for planting, Mr. Theodore Wood performed some experiments in 1885¹² with seed beans infested by the broad-bean weevil. Twenty beans were selected and sowed under the most favorable conditions for their general welfare. At first, growth was strong and vigorous, but when the fruiting time approached it was noticed that the blossoms were scanty and small and the foliage faded and withered, while in some cases plants had died outright without producing a single pod. The total production measured by the pods was in direct proportion to the amount of infestation, such beans as contained three weevils producing less than those which contained two, while those containing only one weevil produced more pods, as high as 23 being counted in one case.^a

Subsequently more detailed experiments conducted by the same writer¹⁵ with a larger lot of material and with different varieties of plants proved that the first experiment was on too small a scale to be productive of decisive results. As an instance, Mr. Wood cites the case of one plant, the seed of which was tenanted by six weevils, which bore no less than nine pods, seven of which reached maturity. Among other things, he states that with the five varieties of infested plants tested, namely, Carter's "Leviathan," Carter's "Seville Longpod," two other unnamed varieties of "Longpod," and early "Mazagan," more than one-fourth of the pods, although large and healthy in appearance, proved upon examination to contain only withered germs of the beans. The early "Mazagan," however, proved to be an exception.

ness which can scarcely be relieved by any other means than the application of various lotions and vigorous scratching. Many persons claim that after being attacked by "chiggers," which usually cause more irritation than fleas, they finally become immune and are no more troubled. In fact, it may be said that farm hands generally are little troubled by these pests. Many people claim that they are never stung or bitten by fleas; then again we will mention the case of *B.*, who is poisoned by mosquitoes as badly as by fleas. To summarize, immunity is secured by experience and there is considerable idiosyncrasy. Nearly all forms of mites which inhabit dwellings and storehouses cause more or less irritation when they become abundant. This subject is considered somewhat more at length in Circular 77 of this bureau, "Harvest-Mites or Chiggers."

^a A striking feature in connection with the experiment above mentioned was, according to Mr. Wood, that the plants raised from weeviled seed, with one single exception, altogether escaped the attacks of *Aphis rumicis*, from which scarcely another plant in the same garden was free. From this he inferred that the sap of the weakened plants was of too deteriorated a character to satisfy the fastidious taste of the "colliers."

The final conclusion, however, of both series of experiments is that the presence of the weevils in the seed is highly detrimental, affecting to a very considerable degree the reproductive powers of the future plant and the germinating qualities of the seed, if any is produced. If the germ itself be penetrated the seed naturally is necessarily rendered sterile.

Mr. Wood admitted that the subject was open to further experiment.

GERMINATION TEST OF INFESTED WINDSOR BEANS FROM CALIFORNIA.

March 8, 1912, from a quantity of Windsor beans infested with the broad-bean weevil, furnished by Mr. Parker from California, a number were selected for germination tests.

The beans were classified as uninjured and those showing injury by the presence of from 1 to 5 holes or infestations. These were placed between cloths and covered with moist sand, remaining in this condition for one week. At the end of this time the beans were opened and the number that had germinated were counted. The beans had previously been divided into lots of 50 each.

The percentages of germination as determined by Mr. C. H. Popenoe are as follows:

TABLE I.—*Germination test of infested Windsor beans from California.*

Number of injuries.	Number of beans.	Number germinated.	Per cent germinated.
Perfect.....	50	37	74
One injury.....	50	29	58
Two injuries.....	50	23	46
Three injuries.....	50	27	54
Four and five injuries.....	65	21	32.3
Average percentage of injured beans that germinated.....			47.5
Percentage of uninjured beans that germinated.....			74.0
Percentage of germinable beans destroyed by weevil.....			35.8

The above figures show that even in cases where a single individual weevil attacks a broad bean, less than 60 per cent of such infested beans germinate, whereas when four or five beetles find lodgment in a single seed, 32.3 per cent, or about one-third only, germinate. There is no doubt that seeds containing holes made by this beetle are unfit for planting, as, even with perfect germination, the opportunity for the entrance of water into the seeds stimulates decay and the seed frequently rots before germination.

SUMMARY OF NATURE OF ATTACK AND LIFE HISTORY.

The principal injury caused by the broad-bean weevil is due to the operations of its larva feeding within the seeds of broad or Windsor beans and, it is said, peas and some other leguminous seeds, thus

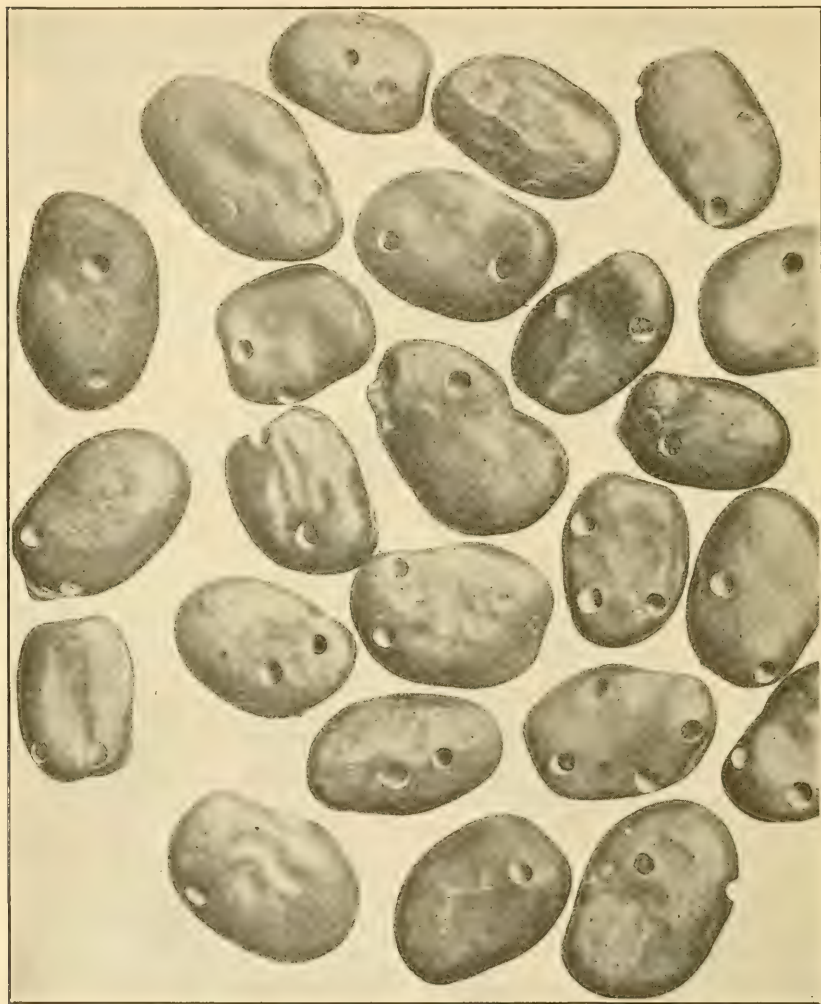


FIG. 16.—Broad beans infested by *Larid rufimana*, showing empty exit holes of beetles, closed exit holes, and open exit holes in which beetles are still present. (Original.)

diminishing their value for sale by loss of weight and by their imperfect or “buggy” appearance (see fig. 16), and also lessening their value as seed material. Where many individuals infest a single seed much

of the tissue is consumed and the germinating power reduced nearly one-half, while the growing power of the plant is also diminished, and there is, moreover, in the case of a plant growing, a much lessened yield of seed, which is also apt to be imperfect.

The method of attack is in brief as follows:

The female weevil begins to deposit her eggs on the young seed vessel in the blossom before and after the former has developed into a pod. Here the eggs hatch and the larvæ penetrate into the growing seeds, each gnawing a gallery for itself, which it lengthens from time to time, as needed. (See fig. 17.) When full grown, the larva transforms to pupa within the accumulated frass and develops later into the beetle stage. This development may take place at different periods, the beetles being found afield in some regions as early as February and until May, some leaving the seed as soon as fully developed and others remaining until they have cut through the skin which remains over the cell while the insect is in the larval and pupal stages. When the beetle wishes to emerge it gnaws around this circular piece of skin and forces its way through.

As is the case with the pea weevil, this species hibernates in the adult condition, and a single generation develops each year. Pupæ have been observed as early as August 3, in California, and the probabilities are that in most seasons the beetles will have developed by the middle of August, or a little later; hence, as they are seen in the field toward the end of March and first of April, it can be deduced that the life of the beetle extends from about the middle of August to the middle of April and later—a period of 8 or 9 months.

The separate periods for the egg, larval, and pupal stages do not appear to have been observed.

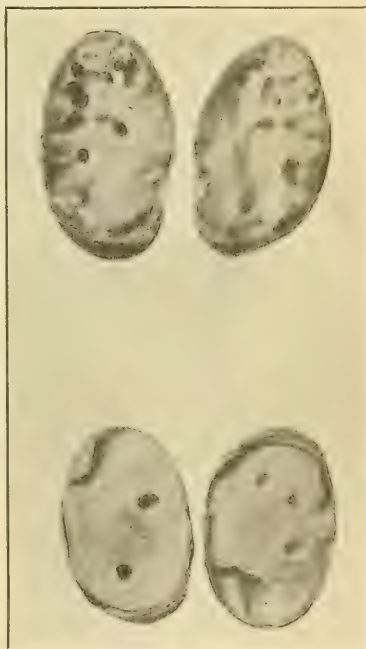


FIG. 17. — Broad beans split to show ravages made by larvæ of the broad-bean weevil above, and by larvæ and adults below, the latter leaving large pupal cases at the ends of the beans. (Original.)

LITERATURE AND HISTORY.

The broad-bean weevil was first described by Boheman^{1a} in 1833, who designated its habitat as Crimea, Dalmatia, Egypt, and France. From the lateness of this description and the fact that the habitat Egypt is mentioned, it is presumed, and with good reason, that the insect was introduced from Egypt, supposedly the natural home of its favorite food plant, the broad bean. In 1860 John Curtis² gave a long account of this species, describing it and its habits and injuries, with reference to earlier writings. He also described three of its hymenopterous parasites. It was not until 10 years later that Riley³ wrote of the supposed introduction of the insect in America. Rathvon,⁴ Glover,⁵ and Horn,⁷ as well as other writers, seem to have taken it for granted that this species was already introduced from Switzerland into America, basing this supposition on Riley's first editorial note. In later years Fletcher¹⁷ mentions the detection of the insect in broad beans imported from England and found in Canada, but neither he, Hamilton,¹⁸ Lintner,²² or others assumed the establishment of the species in the United States or Canada.

Of important writings on this species may be mentioned the works of Achille Costa, first published in 1857 and again 20 years later,⁹ this account including a description of the egg, larva, and adult, and treatment of the biology. Taschenberg,^{10 11} who gave similar accounts, Theo. Wood,^{12 15} whose articles will be mentioned later, Miss Ormerod,^{14 20 21} and Lintner.²² Lintner's article, while a detailed one furnishing a somewhat complete bibliography, is largely devoted to a discussion of the synonymy of the species and its reported occurrence in America. Other articles and notes on this species are cited in the appended bibliography.

In this connection it might be mentioned that Olivier, in his treatment of "*Bruchus pisi*" in 1795,¹ evidently failed to differentiate the pea weevil from the species in question and the lentil weevil, since in his illustrations, figure 6, *c*, is recognizable as *pisorum*, while figure 6, *d*, is evidently intended for *rufimanus*. In his concluding notes on "*psi*" he writes that the larva lives in the interior of peas, lentils, "gesse," beans, and some species of vetch. Moreover, his illustration of *Bruchus granarius* is that of a much smaller insect than *rufimanus* (Pl. I, fig. 10, *a, b*), and therefore not the latter species.

NATURAL ENEMIES.

Of the natural enemies of this species very little has been written. John Curtis recorded in 1863 three hymenopterous parasites, which he describes.² These are *Sigalphus pallipes* Nees, *Sigalphus thoracicus* Curt., and *Chremylus rubiginosus* Nees.

^a See Bibliography, pp. 80-82.

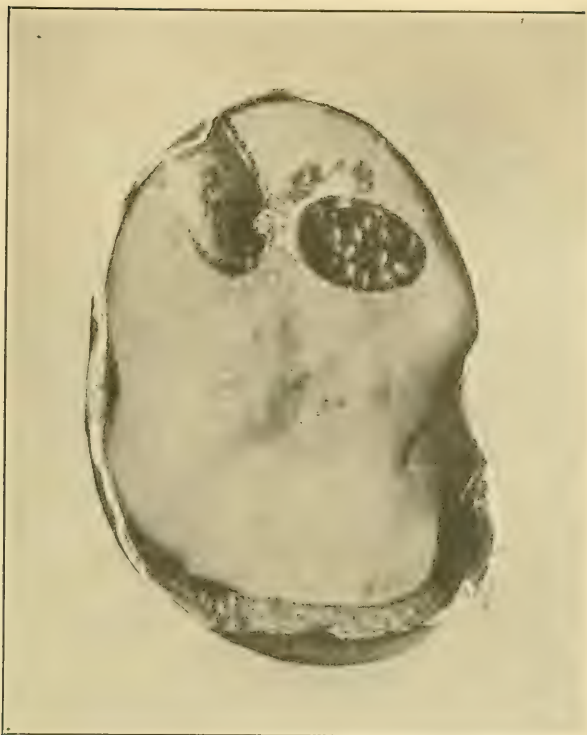


FIG. 18.—Broad bean cut in half to show, at top on left, pupal cell of the broad-bean weevil; at right, cell containing predaceous mite (*Pediculoides ventricosus*). Enlarged. (Original.)



FIG. 19.—Gravid female of *Pediculoides ventricosus*. Greatly enlarged. (Redrawn from Brueker.)

To this list should be added *Pediculoides ventricosus* Newport. Strangely enough, this predaceous mite was not actually observed until 1911, when the species was reported by Mr. Parker at Sacramento, Cal. An illustration is given in figure 18 of a broad bean cut in half, showing the pupal cell of *Larix rufimana* at the left, and at the right another pupal cell showing a mass of females of this mite which have developed within this cell. A gravid female mite is shown in figure 19.

On April 15, 1911, Mr. Parker observed another natural enemy of this species.

A beetle was seen in the clutches of a reduviid bug (*Zelus renardii* Kolen.), which had its beak thrust through the ventral part of the beetle's abdomen.

The probabilities are also that the insect is devoured in the field, at least in its native habitat, by birds of different species.

EXPERIMENTS WITH REMEDIES.

By WILLIAM B. PARKER, *Agent*.

EXPOSURE TO HEAT OF SUN AS A REMEDY.

Experiment No. 1.—At Sacramento, Cal., August 21, 1911, 50 Windsor beans infested by larvæ, pupæ, and adults of *Larid rufimana* were placed in a black rubber tray and set on a white canvas spread on the roof of the State Insectary. In this situation it was exposed to the sun and protected from the wind. The beans were placed in the sun at 10 a. m., and exposed to the following temperatures until 5 p. m.: 10 a. m., 104° F.; 11.30 a. m., 112° F.; 1 p. m., 116° F.; 2 p. m., 118° F. At 5 p. m. the temperature was below 100° F.

September 13, as none of the insects in these beans had emerged, the beans were opened and the number of living and dead noted. There were no living insects in the beans, but the following is a tabulation of the numbers of larvæ, pupæ, and adults which were found. A check of 20 beans was kept.^a

TABLE II.—*Heat of sun as a remedy against the broad-bean weevil.*

	Number dead.	Check experiment.	
		Dead.	Living.
Larvæ.....	20	3	0
Pupæ.....	25	2	1
Adults.....	42	1	27
Total.....	87	6	28
Per cent.....	100	17+	82+

HOT-WATER TREATMENT.

Experiment No. 2.—At Berkeley, Cal., 133 broad beans infested by *Larid rufimana* were placed in water that had just ceased boiling and were left 5 minutes. When removed they were placed in a pan with moist cotton for a germination test. Of this lot, 116 beans sprouted, or 87.2 per cent. The 26 insects found in the beans were dead.

Experiment No. 3.—Beans to the number of 116 were similarly treated, but were left in the water until cool. Four quarts were used. Eighty-three, or 71.5 per cent, of the beans sprouted. All of the beetles were dead.

Experiment No. 4.—Infested beans were placed in hot water that had just ceased boiling and were removed after 1 minute. Fifty-two beetles were removed from the beans and all were dead. No germination test was made.

During the preliminary experiments just recorded it was observed that the adults in Windsor beans were killed if the beans were dipped in water that had just ceased boiling, while the germinating power of the beans was not injured. As soon as enough infested material was obtained for a moderately large-scale experiment, the following tests were made:

^a These beans were not tested for germination percentage.

Experiment No. 5.—Fifteen pounds of infested beans were dipped in 20 gallons of water which had been heated to the boiling point in an iron caldron. The water had just ceased boiling and the beans were allowed to remain in the water 5 minutes.

Experiment No. 6.—A second lot was dipped for 1 minute. The effect upon the beetles and upon the germinating power of the beans may be expressed in tabular form, as follows:

TABLE III.—*Hot-water treatment against broad-bean weevil and its effects on germinating power of treated beans.*

Temperature.	Time of immersion.	Number beans counted.	Percentage of beetles killed.	Percentage of germination.
° F.	Minutes.			
210	5	98	100	2.0
210	1	111	100	38.7

From the preceding data it is evident that on a large scale, at least, the germinating power of the beans is seriously injured. The germination was not injured by the small-scale treatments of a similar nature.

Experiment No. 7.—In another test the infested beans were placed in cold water in the iron caldron and the temperature gradually raised. The first beans were removed when the temperature reached 140° F. and the last at 170° F. The results of these experiments follow:

TABLE IV.—*Hot-water treatment against broad-bean weevil and its effects on germinating power of treated beans.*

Temperature.	Time of immersion.	Number beans counted.	Percentage of beetles killed.	Percentage of germination.
° F.	Minutes.			Per cent.
130	23	76	94	86.0
140	27	130	100	98.4
150	32	129	100	88.3
160	39	91	100	82.4
170	43	116	100	56.8

It is evident from the foregoing data that 140° F. is the lowest temperature at which all of the insects are sure to be killed and that the germinating power of the bean is not seriously injured until the temperature reaches 160° F. or over.

When removed from the water the beans were somewhat soaked, but were in good shape for planting.

METHODS OF CONTROL.

Possibility of eradication.—The broad-bean weevil is by no means a difficult species to control and if proper action could be enforced there is every probability that the insect could be stamped out in its limited occurrence in this country. This would, however, in all probability require special legislation. By the abandonment, in the infested district, of the culture of broad beans, and possibly other beans and other large legumes which might furnish the insect with food, this result could be accomplished, if at the same time soaking and fumigation of seed, "holding over," and other remedies were

practiced. One condition might militate against the effectiveness of a stamping-out process, which is that there is a possibility that the insect might find food in some wild leguminous plant producing a seed large enough for its development, for example, one of the vetches, or other related wild plant, or some plant that has escaped from cultivation. Although this contingency is a doubtful one, still the project is one requiring further study with this end in view. Otherwise the remedies are practically the same as for the pea weevil, allowing of course for different food habits.

The hot-water remedy.—In regard to direct remedies, the late Dr. James Fletcher, experimenting in 1888, demonstrated that soaking broad beans in water for 24 hours drowned every specimen of the weevils present in the samples which he had for the purpose. This expedient, if not applied when the seed is first harvested, should be employed before the time of sowing the seed. The hot-water treatment, with an exposure of, say, 15 minutes, as employed by Mr. Parker in his experiments with cold water gradually heated to 140° F., is obviously a more certain remedy.

Writing of the possibility of the breeding of this species in food plants other than broad beans, Mr. Parker stated, March 18, 1912, that it seems possible that the other leguminous seeds come too late for the beetles to oviposit upon the pods. The Windsor beans are planted in November and ripen very early, while the other legumes are not planted until spring and do not ripen until quite late in the season.

In the practical carrying out of this remedy a piece of burlap is placed in a caldron so that when weighted down with the beans it will not touch the bottom or sides. This keeps the beans from coming into contact with the heating surface and prevents them from becoming overheated. The beans are then placed on the burlap and covered with water and the fire started. The temperature should be raised as rapidly as possible, the beans stirred constantly, and when the thermometer reads 140° F. the beans should be immediately removed. They may then be planted or spread out in a thin layer to dry.

Holding over seed.—As in the case of the related pea weevil, holding over seed for a second year in a tight bag or other receptacle will be found sufficient. The beetles, if kept in a warm room, will emerge prematurely and will die without injuring the beans afterward, as they are unable to breed in dry seed.

Fumigation.—Fumigation with bisulphid of carbon, at the rate of about 2 or 3 pounds of the chemical to each 1,000 cubic feet of air space for 48 hours, is a perfect remedy in an air-tight receptacle, as in the case of other bean and pea weevils.

While a smaller amount of this chemical—1½ pounds to 1,000 cubic feet, with an exposure of 36 hours—is sometimes advised and is theo-

retically correct, i. e., for absolutely air-tight inclosures, there is great difficulty in securing such a degree of tightness; hence greater strength and longer exposure are desirable. On the other hand the rate advised by many is excessive, especially when three days' exposure is also advised.

In some cases hydrocyanic-acid gas at the usual rate of 10 ounces of cyanid of potash to 1,000 cubic feet will be found useful, where for any reason bisulphid of carbon is considered undesirable. This remedy has not been tested for this species in its occurrence in broad beans, but it has been successfully employed against related weevils and it should not be difficult for this gas to penetrate a mass of these larger seeds.

In the practical fumigation of beans, peas, and similar seeds with bisulphid of carbon it should be first understood that the more nearly air tight the receptacle the more perfect the fumigation. Infested seed should be placed in large barrels, which should then be closed tightly, or in specially made fumigating boxes, bins, or small houses. After filling the receptacles with the seed the bisulphid is poured into evaporators, for which purpose tin pie plates are most valuable, placed on the top of the seed. The gas, being heavier than air, descends through the mass of seed, and, properly applied according to directions, will kill all of the insects contained. At the end of about 48 hours, which is sufficient for perfect fumigation under these conditions, the seed should be removed and thoroughly aired before being packed away for storage. If left in the receptacles, the dead bodies are apt to decay, and thus injure the seed for food or planting.

The usual precautions not to bring fire of any kind, such as a lighted cigar, into the vicinity of the place where the operation is being performed should be observed. Where the covers or doors of the receptacles do not fit perfectly tight, paper should be carefully pasted over.

In any form of leguminous seed the penetrating power of bisulphid of carbon, hydrocyanic-acid gas, and other gases is as nearly perfect as could be wished.

CONSTRUCTION OF A FUMIGATOR.

The extensive pea growers of our Northern States, especially in New York and Michigan, have largely adopted what was known in former years as Tracy houses, named after Prof. W. W. Tracy, now of this department, and also called "bug houses," for the fumigation of peas affected by the related pea weevil. The opinion is somewhat prevalent that in spite of the fact that we can control the broad-bean and pea weevils by means of heating, soaking, and similar mechanical methods, everything considered, fumigation on a large scale, while a little more expensive, is more thorough and requires less labor. The same is true of grain and other material in general

affected by weevils and insects of similar habits. The simplest and least expensive remedy consists in the establishment of a quarantine or fumigating building, bin, or box, to be made as nearly air tight as possible, in which the peas, beans, or other infested material can be placed as soon as harvested. After fumigation, if properly conducted, the broad beans or other material can be safely placed in permanent storage without danger of reinfestation from the species which is being considered.

A building, box, or room of about 100 to 200 bushels capacity suitable for the fumigation of a quantity of beans, peas, or grain would contain about 500 cubic feet. A fumigator of this cubic capacity might be built 8 feet square by 8 feet in height. A good, and perhaps the best, preventive for the escape of the gas would be to line the fumigator with sheet tin, with soldered joints, and over sheathing. Another method would be to sheath the room inside, cover the walls, ceiling, and floor with tarred or heavy building paper, with the joints well lapped, and cover the inside with matched ceiling boards. The fumigator should always be equipped with a tight door, in which the joints have been broken, similar to the door of a refrigerator or safe, and should close with a refrigerator catch against a thick felt weather strip, which should render it practically gas tight. Thus constructed it would furnish sufficient space for the fumigation of about 200 bushels of seed material. There would also be sufficient space for the application and diffusion of the carbon bisulphid from the top with a charge of more than necessary for the amount of seed treated.

It is highly desirable to have this fumigating building isolated, because of the danger in the use of bisulphid of carbon, its inflammability, and liability to affect live stock. The writer has had personal experience with several such fumigators in Washington, D. C., and with one in Chicago years ago. The latter was constructed from an iron boiler and was fitted with a metallic door similar to those used in large bank safes. In this fumigator the writer was successful in destroying weevils and other insects in stored grains in 24 hours, using it at the minimum rate of 1 pound to 1,000 cubic feet of air space. In his experience in the use of more loosely constructed fumigators and other containers, peas, beans, and other useful legumes can be satisfactorily fumigated even more easily than can stored cereals. In recent experiments, in specially prepared fumigators which we are now using, it was found best to use 2 pounds to 1,000 cubic feet of air space. It is much better, also, to fumigate at a comparatively high temperature than at a low one, and an exposure of from 36 to 48 hours is better than one of 24 hours. After constructing a fumigator on the lines which have been indicated, the operator will be able to determine the best quantity of insecticide and the length of exposure

to his own satisfaction. Perfectly air-tight inclosures are difficult to obtain unless specially constructed with this particular end in view.

A fumigator of the type described is illustrated by figure 20. It has a capacity of 100 cubic feet and is supplied with a pair of tight-closing handles, which are a necessity to prevent warping. Of three fumiga-

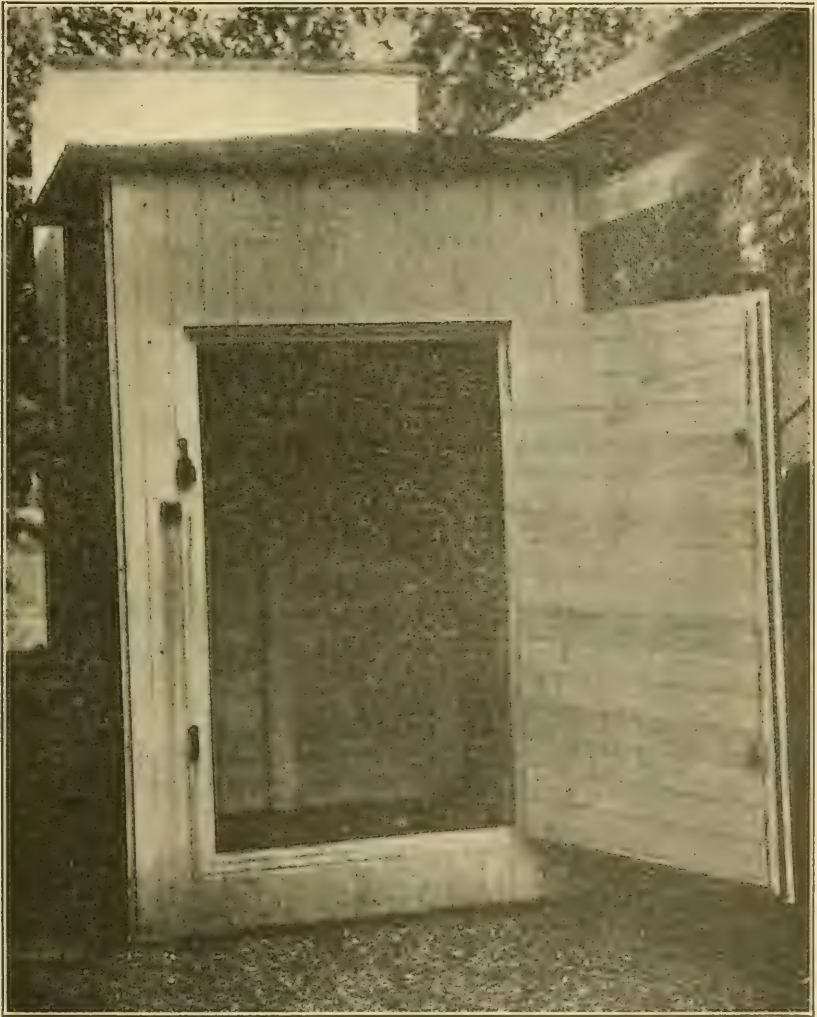


FIG. 20.—Fumigator used for stored products infested by insects. (Original.)

tors of similar pattern one was constructed with a single handle, which was not according to specification, and warped badly in consequence.

It should be added that in order to destroy insects in a fumigator or other inclosure at a temperature much below 50° F. a larger quantity of the bisulphid of carbon is necessary than when the temperature is about 80° to 90° F.

Dry heat.—In the series of experiments made by Mr. Parker in California, the exposure to the heat of the sun as a remedy is significant, but it is not certain what effect this would have if applied on a large scale. A series of experiments along this line should be made, and should also be carried on with other species of weevils in beans, peas, and cowpeas. This remedy has several times been suggested and probably some persons have already made tests of it, but we have no definite records to that effect. One of the best ways would be to place the infested seed on metal, such as roofing tin, especially if the temperature is particularly high, i. e., above 100° F.

Impossibility of prevention.—As in the case of other bean and pea weevils, there is no known method of preventing the ravages of the insect in the field, except the timely application of remedies before the seed is planted. It is not impossible that a certain degree of immunity from injury might be obtained by either very early or very late planting. This remains to be learned. In the case of choice plants grown for experimental purposes protection could be secured by the use of cloth screens as has been advised for such insects as the strawberry weevil and the root maggots.

Importation of parasites.—The insect might be held partly in check at least by the introduction of one or more of three hymenopterous parasites which have been previously mentioned.

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 96, Part VI.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE COWPEA WEEVIL.

BY

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In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

ISSUED OCTOBER 17, 1912.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1912.

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TRUCK CROP AND STORED PRODUCT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introductory.....	83
Descriptive.....	83
The genus <i>Pachymerus</i> Latreille.....	83
The beetle.....	84
The egg.....	85
The postembryonic larva.....	85
Synonymy.....	85
Distribution.....	85
Life history and habits.....	86
Oviposition.....	86
Life-cycle periods.....	87
Number of generations.....	88
Longevity of adults.....	89
Food plants.....	89
The point of exit of the beetle from the seed.....	89
Susceptibility of different varieties of cowpea.....	90
Summary of life history.....	90
Literature.....	91
Methods of control.....	92
Bibliography.....	93

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATE.	Page.
PLATE I. Blackeye cowpeas infested by the cowpea weevil (<i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>), showing eggs and exit holes.....	86

TEXT FIGURE.

FIG. 21. The cowpea weevil (<i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>): Male beetle, egg, larva and details.....	84
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PAPERS ON INSECTS AFFECTING STORED PRODUCTS.

THE COWPEA WEEVIL.*(Pachymerus chinensis L.)*

By F. H. CHITTENDEN, Sc. D.,

In Charge of Truck Crop and Stored Product Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTION.

The seed of cowpeas are subject to the attack of several species of beetles, of which the cowpea weevil (*Pachymerus chinensis* L.) and the four-spotted bean weevil (*P. quadrimaculatus* Fab.) appear to be specific enemies, injuring the seed in much the same manner as does the common bean weevil. Like that species they begin operations in the field, and continue to breed for successive generations in the stored seed until they entirely spoil it for food and seriously impair its germinating power. Both species are generally distributed and injurious in the South, and are widening their range with the increasing use of their food plant as a soil renovator and as forage.

The cowpea weevil resembles the four-spotted bean weevil superficially in appearance, as in habit, but these two species differ to some extent in various details of their life economy, as well as in structure and distribution. They belong to the same genus of the family Lariidæ (Bruchidæ).

DESCRIPTIVE.

THE GENUS PACHYMERUS LATREILLE.

The genus *Pachymerus*, as defined by Allard, includes species having the following characteristics:

Posterior femora much thickened, armed on the underside near the extremity with small unequal teeth, and the tibiæ slender and curved.

The following is Schøenherr's definition:

Antennæ somewhat longer than the thorax, becoming wider toward the apex, compressed; joints subperfoliate, half as long as body, last six to eight joints acutely serrate. Head carinate. Eyes sublateral, deeply emarginate, prominent. Thorax in front strongly coarctate, slightly narrower than head; behind deeply

bisinate; in the middle lobed, with acute angles. Elytra subquadrate, the apices separately rounded, above subplanose. Pygidium large, rounded at apex, descendant. Posterior femora strongly incrassate, slightly toothed and serrate about apex. Tibiæ terete [cylindrical], posterior tibiæ arcuate. Body short-ovate, more or less convex.

THE BEETLE.

The cowpea weevil may be readily distinguished from all other species of the family inhabiting the United States by the two large, elevated, ivory-like lobes at the base of the thorax and by the strongly pectinate antennæ of the male (see fig. 21, *a*). The body is more robust than that of other bean and cowpea feeding forms.

The ground color is dull red, sometimes more or less blackish, variegated with black, brown, yellow, and gray or white pubescence. The pattern of the elytra varies, that shown in the illustration being

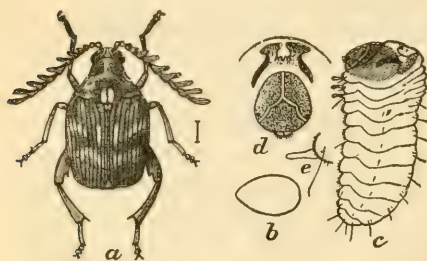


FIG. 21.—The cowpea weevil (*Pachymerus chinensis*): *a*, Adult male; *b*, egg; *c*, post-embryonic larva; *d*, front view of head of same; *e*, thoracic leg of same. *a*, Much enlarged; *b*, *c*, more enlarged. (Author's illustration.)

the prevailing form, the combination of colors making, with the somewhat feathery antennæ of the male, one of the most beautiful species of its family to be found in America north of Mexico. The darkest spots at the sides are not round and conspicuous as in the four-spotted bean weevil, and the apical spots are sometimes wanting, while often black is the prevailing color of the dorsal surface.

The following description, under the name *scutellaris* Fab., is from Horn's synopsis, published in 1873:^{5*}

Short, robust, brownish, opaque. Hard brown, opaque, densely and coarsely punctured, front subcarinate. Antennæ variable, usually pale rufous, rarely with the outer joints nearly black, as long as head and thorax, male pectinate, female serrate. Thorax trapezoidal, sides nearly straight, base trisinate, median lobe emarginate at middle; color brownish opaque; surface coarsely punctured intervals rugoso-granulate; median line in front and narrow space at sides sparsely clothed with cinereous pubescence, a small whitish spot on each side of the median line near the middle of the thorax, basal lobe white, ivory-like, clothed with whitish pubescence. Scutellum convex, white. Elytra sub-quadrate, feebly convex, wider at base than thorax; surface striate, striae punctured, intervals flat, scabrous or finely punctulate; color usually brownish or ferruginous with darker spaces at base and humerus, and a darker space at middle of side connected along the margin. Pygidium nearly vertical, clothed with ochreous hairs, with a whitish line along the middle and a reniform brown spot on each side near the apex. Body beneath brownish, densely punctulate, sparsely clothed with whitish hairs; abdomen paler, with a band of white hairs at the sides. Legs, anterior and middle pairs, pale rufous,

* The small figures refer to the bibliography, pp. 93 and 94.

hind legs dark rufous or brownish. Hind femora armed near the tip with an acute tooth on the outer and inner side.

Length 2.5–3.5 mm.; width 1.5–1.8 mm. Smaller individuals, dwarfed, are frequently seen.

THE EGG.

The egg is ovate in outline, somewhat variable, but usually less than two-thirds as wide as long, rather broadly rounded anteriorly and more narrowly posteriorly, the extreme apex rounded, convex exteriorly and flattened interiorly. The attached surface is variable, but of considerable quantity, flattened upon the seed upon which it is deposited, a lateral view presenting the impression of an egg severed in half. When freshly laid it is clear, translucent. The surface is smooth, shining, with no visible sculpture.

Measurements of five eggs gave the following figures:

- No. 1. Length 0.48 mm.; width 0.27 mm.
2. Length 0.49 mm.; width 0.32 mm.
3. Length 0.58 mm.; width 0.31 mm.
4. Length 0.51 mm.; width 0.33 mm.
5. Length 0.49 mm.; width 0.31 mm.

The above show a variation of from 0.48 to 0.58 mm. in length and from 0.27 to 0.33 mm. in width.

The empty eggshells on the seeds or pods in the course of time become opaque gray.

THE POSTEMBRYONIC LARVA.

The newly hatched larva (fig. 21, *c*) resembles somewhat that of the pea weevil. It is of course smaller, the minute temporary legs (see *c*) are apparently not jointed, and the prothoracic plate (*d*) bears blunt rounded teeth instead of acute spines.

SYNONYMY.

Pachymerus chinensis L.

Curculio chinensis Linn., Syst. Nat., 10th ed., p. 386, 1758.

Bruchus scutellaris Fab., Entom. Syst., vol. 1, Pt. II, p. 372, 1792.

Bruchus pectinicornis L., Syst. Nat., 12th ed., p. 605, pl. 16, fig. 7.

Bruchus adustus Motsch., Bul. Mosc., vol. 4, p. 228, 1873.

Bruchus rufus DeG., Mem., vol. 5, p. 281.

DISTRIBUTION.

This species is cosmopolitan in the widest sense of the word. Until comparatively recent years there appeared to be a belief prevalent among persons who have observed the cowpea-inhabiting weevils that the cowpea weevil was not so firmly established in the United States as the four-spotted form. It is not only thoroughly acclimated throughout the Gulf region, but appears to be found generally in temperate regions at least as far north as the District of Columbia, where it practically may be taken nearly every year in the field. In

the year 1896, when many cowpeas were grown in the District, it was very abundant in the field in September. Since that time it has not been so noticeable, probably because cowpeas are not so extensively grown here. It was the prevalent species in cowpeas in the Norfolk region in 1911. It is fairly certain that it is capable of establishing itself wherever its food plant will grow.

Described from China it was later identified in seeds from many localities and is now widely known through its distribution by commerce, being particularly abundant in tropical countries. Its recorded distribution abroad includes Europe; China, Japan, East India, and Korea, in Asia; Egypt, Sierra Leone, Barbary, Algeria, Rhodesia, Amani, and the Cape of Good Hope, in Africa; Porto Rico, Bermuda, Jamaica, British West Indies; Panama, Brazil, and Chile, in tropical America; Hawaii, Celebes, Java, Dutch East Indies, and Mauritius.

The cowpea is credited with having first been cultivated in this country in the early days of the eighteenth century, and the weevil came with it or soon afterwards, but there is no available record of the occurrence of the insect here earlier than 1853.¹

LIFE HISTORY AND HABITS.

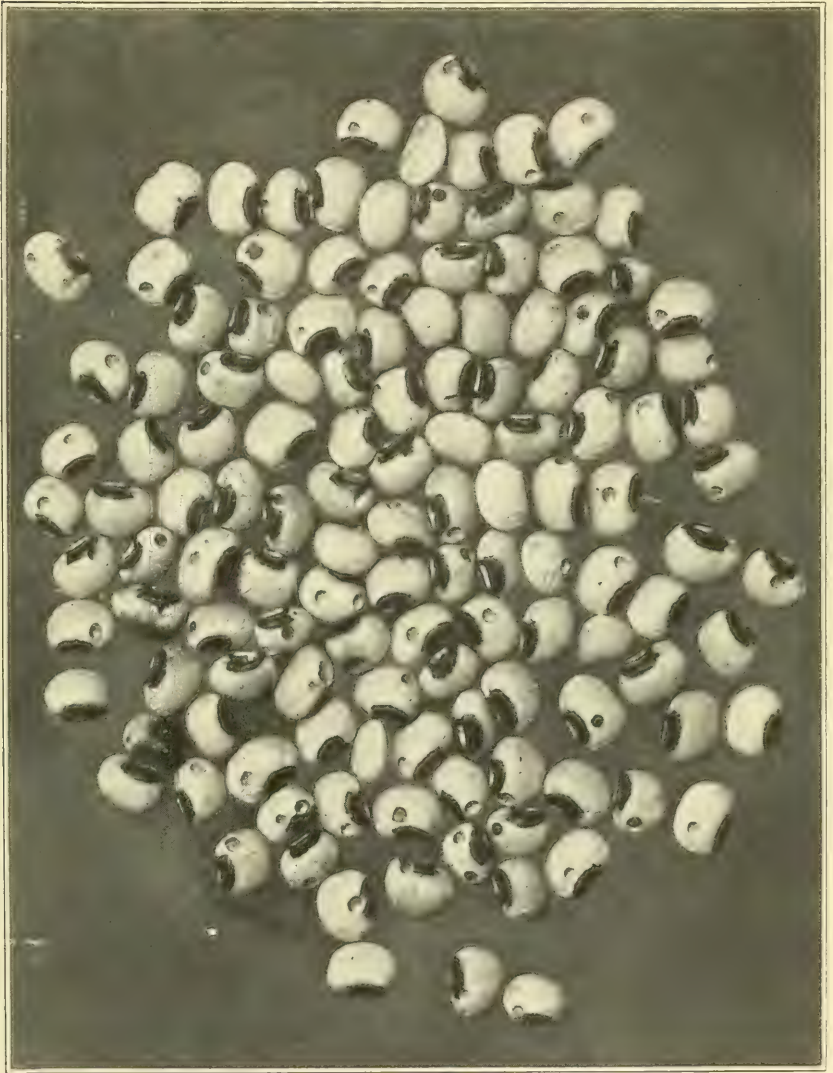
OVIPOSITION.

The usual process of oviposition on dry beans and similar seed as observed by the writer is as follows:

The female crawls about the seed to select a place for deposition; after a few seconds she stops and remains perfectly quiet and in less than a minute, sometimes at once, begins to extrude the egg, completing the operation by a curious and vigorous wriggle from side to side and a short forward motion as the egg is deposited. Within less than another minute, sometimes at once, she turns about and examines the egg with her palpi. Sometimes this is omitted and she rests for a time; again she proceeds at once to repeat the operation in from three to four minutes after the first egg was laid, always crawling about for half a minute or more to select a new place for its reception.

Apparently it is the general rule with this, as well as with related species and with many other beetles, to deposit each egg on a different seed, but sometimes two, three, or even four are deposited on the same seed by the same female, and other females follow until an indefinite number are deposited on one seed. As many as 30 eggs may be counted, in badly infested material, on a single seed of cowpea measuring three-eighths of an inch in length. Plate I shows the eggs of this species on Blackeye cowpeas.

¹ F. E. Melsheimer, Cat. Col. U. S., 1853, p. 99, mentioned as *scutellaris* Fab., synonym of *sinuatus* Schoen.



BLACKEYE COWPEAS INFESTED BY THE COWPEA WEEVIL (*PACHYMERUS CHINENSIS*),
SHOWING EGGS AND EXIT HOLES. (ORIGINAL.)

In a heated period the beetles may be so active as to gnaw their way out from the holes in the seed within 24 hours. The males seek the other sex almost as soon as they emerge from the seed and copulation and egg laying begin very soon thereafter. Copulation has been witnessed within at most four hours after issuance, and eggs have been found the same day.

LIFE-CYCLE PERIODS.

This species was kept breeding throughout the winter in a warm room with an average temperature of about 70° F. During March and April experiments on the life cycle were begun. A number of adult weevils were confined in a rearing jar with fresh beans April 27, and removed after 24 hours, numbers of eggs having been laid during that period. From this lot larvæ began to emerge from the eggs May 5, showing a period of incubation of 8 days or about the same as for (*Bruchus*) *Acanthoscelides obtectus* in about the same temperature, which has been ascertained to be between 8 and 10 days.

A larva, about to transform to pupa on April 9, pupated on April 10, and appeared as imago April 20, or in 10 days, in similar cool weather in April. Five larvæ were removed from their cocoons in the beans and assumed the pupal state April 20, from which two issued as imago April 27, or in 7 days in slightly warmer weather. The remainder failed to transform, and it was noticed that about 25 per cent of the larvæ, removed from their cocoons when about to transform to pupæ, perished before assuming the adult condition, showing the necessity of the protection of the cocoon within the seed.

A pair of weevils was confined in a rearing jar May 23, with chickpeas, and from this lot the next generation was obtained June 24, or in 32 days.

In another lot of chickpeas, which were still drier than the last, the imago did not develop until 38 days, showing that this species naturally develops in fresh seed more rapidly than in dry seed. In garden peas, beetles developed in 30 days, from June 7 to July 7, in still warmer weather. In other lots kept under different conditions in a cooler room, the entire life cycle in March and April was 45 and 60 days in two experiments.

Another experiment was made in a hot room during the latter part of June and in July and the entire life cycle was passed in 21 days, from egg to adult, showing with the next experiment that in the warmest season of the year in a climate like that of the District of Columbia, where the temperature not infrequently reaches from 90° to 100° F. for prolonged periods, this insect may pass through its transformations in an astonishingly short time.

Finally a lot of fresh beans was placed in a rearing jar containing beetles June 23, and in a few days the beans were removed covered

with eggs. The beetles were also removed. On July 12 two males emerged from this lot and the first bean opened disclosed a newly hatched beetle. Allowing at least a day for the beetle to mature sufficiently to gnaw through the outer shell of the bean, we have in this case the completed life cycle in 18 days.

NUMBER OF GENERATIONS.

It will be readily seen that with a species capable of developing in from three to eight weeks according to temperature, we have a possibility in a heated atmosphere of six, seven, or even eight generations annually. Knowing the effect of temperature on the development of insects in general, and of a rapidly breeding species like the present in particular, we may say approximately that throughout the coldest months in the District of Columbia, January and February, in storage in a heated temperature of about 70° F., it is possible for one generation to develop; in the higher temperatures indoors during March, April, and May, two generations; in the still higher temperatures of June, July, and August, one generation in each month; in September and October, one generation; and between the latter part of October and the last of December another generation, making a theoretically possible annual total of eight generations. There is apt to be a resting stage, however, at some point, as was observed on one occasion. During the second week of April, in a heavily infested lot of seeds where the beetles were emerging in large numbers, literally by hundreds almost every day, development suddenly ceased and the beetles did not again appear until about a week later. Two days afterwards they had again become abundant. In cool temperatures the number of generations will be less—three, four, or five—while in colder temperatures the species will probably not survive.

Some other records, the details of which have not been preserved, are available showing that the egg period in the high temperature of midsummer weather may be four or five days and the pupal stage a similar period. A summary of the different periods is shown in the following table. The larval periods are necessarily estimated by subtracting the period of incubation and that of the pupa from the total life cycle. The other periods which are indicated in the table by a star (*) have been estimated in a similar manner; the remaining periods have come under actual observation.

Developmental periods and life cycle of the cowpea weevil.

	March-May.	June-July.	Minimum.	Maximum.
			° F.	° F.
Egg.....	8, 10	3*, 4, 5, 6*	3*, 4	10
Larva.....	17, 25, 40	12, 13, 18	12, 13	40
Pupa.....	7, 10	3*, 4, 5, 6*	3*, 4	10
Cycle.....	32, 45, 60	18, 21, 30	18	60

LONGEVITY OF ADULTS.

The beetles of this species have not been noticed feeding. Possibly they feed on the nectar of flowers in the open, but this is not essential to their existence. In experiments to determine the duration of life indoors considerable variation was encountered. May 16, 20 adults recently developed were separated and placed on dried beans. All were dead on May 28, with one exception—a male, which lived until June 21—showing the longevity of 19 individuals to be 12 days and for this one 36 days. Similar experiments were made under perhaps better conditions and some beetles were still living at the end of 17, 18, 19, and, in one case, 25 days.

FOOD PLANTS.

This species is seemingly capable of breeding on most forms of edible legumes, infesting practically all of the cowpeas and beans, and their numerous varieties, "Adsuki" beans (*Phaseolus radiatus*), pigeon peas (*Cajanus indica*), garden and field peas, lentils, chick-peas (*Cicer arictinum*), and the Ceylonese seeds known as "gram" or "mung," and in their native home as "kolu" and "muneta," *Phaseolus mango*.

We have reared it from *Vigna catjang* and *V. unguiculatus* of many varieties, *V. sinensis*, and *Dolichos biflorus*, and the species has been collected in fields of broad beans. In the case of its attacking lentils, the beetles have, on several occasions, been found in India and in the dry seeds in the District of Columbia. It is not probable that the species can develop in the smallest sized seeds, unless it infests them in the same manner as the lentil weevil does in the field by traveling from one seed to another in the pod. Glycine, a small green variety of soy bean from China, from which we have reared it, appears to be an unrecorded food plant. Of other food plants, Lefroy and Howlett²² have recorded *Dolichos lablab*, the hyacinth bean.

THE POINT OF EXIT OF THE BEETLE FROM THE SEED.

While examining some Blackeye cowpeas for illustration it was noticed that the majority of the seed showed exit holes of the beetle on the anterior or left half of the seed viewed with the plumule or germ end downward. To learn how general this was, 100 seed were counted out, with the result that 47, or nearly 50 per cent, showed exit holes on the anterior half, 29 on the posterior or right half, 8 near the middle, and 5 near one end, while 11 showed two exit holes. These seed were from the field at Norfolk, Va., where only moderate infestation occurred. In no case was the plumule or germ invaded, the beetles not even attacking the "eye" or black

area surrounding the germ. Whether this location of the exit hole, which shows the point at which the larva developed, is constant or not, or whether it is due to the manner of growing, or exposure to direct sunlight, or to shade, remains to be learned. It is not an economic proposition, but is a matter of some interest scientifically.

Another lot of cowpeas infested by the four-spotted bean weevil was examined for comparison and gave similar results. Estimated by percentages of exit holes, on the left side there were 48 per cent, on the right side 26 per cent, near the center 8 per cent, and at one end 6 per cent, while 12 per cent contained two exit holes. It is easy to separate the work of the two species in spite of this fact, however, because of the larger and somewhat more irregular exit holes made by the beetle of the four-spotted species.

SUSCEPTIBILITY OF DIFFERENT VARIETIES OF COWPEA.

From observation of the seed of cowpea grown upon the experimental plats of the department grounds and obtained from other sources it appears that certain varieties are preferred to others by the cowpea weevil as well as by weevils of related habits. When the insect is extremely abundant it is not apt to discriminate between varieties; or, in other words, if the favorite plant is not present in the vicinity where the insect happens to abound, it will not hesitate to attack whatever variety may be ready at hand. There is the best of evidence for the belief that these weevils, like the grain weevils (*Calandra*), prefer the softest seed because more easily penetrated, and that they experience more or less difficulty in entering harder seed.

The favored variety here, and apparently elsewhere, judging mainly from seed taken direct from the field, appears to be the Blackeye, although all the varieties grown were attacked, the Lee variety less so than any of the others. The different varieties observed are listed in approximate order of infestation as follows: Blackeye, Browneye, Black, Lady, Rice, Manakin, Southdown, Red Ripper, Whippoorwill, New Era, Red Crowder, Unknown, and Lee.

SUMMARY OF LIFE HISTORY.

The cowpea weevil does not differ very strikingly in its life habits and economy from the common bean weevil. A careful study of the biology of each, however, has been rewarded by the development of certain points of difference, which may be briefly summarized.

The eggs are deposited on the outside of the growing pods in the field and upon the dried seeds, and are attached by a glutinous substance which covers the egg and extends somewhat around it. The larvæ hatch from them in four, five, or more days, depending

upon the season, temperature, and other circumstances, and burrow into the pods to the developing seed, which they penetrate. In two or three weeks in midsummer weather, and in about two months in cooler weather, they attain full growth, when they present much the same appearance as the larvæ of other bean and pea weevils. The pupal state lasts from about four or five days in warm weather to considerably longer in cooler weather, whereupon the beetle form is assumed. The beetle gnaws its way out of the seed in the same manner as do the related species, by cutting a round flap through the skin of the pod. The first brood which develops in the field attains maturity by about the third week of September, or perhaps earlier, if we may judge by the appearance of the exit holes in the pods and the further fact that certain varieties of cowpea mature sooner than this.

The beetles continue to develop in the stored seed for several generations, in fact until the seed becomes completely ruined for any practical purpose and unfit even for the sustenance of this insect; then decomposition sets in, inviting swarms of mites, and the beetles are forced to other quarters in their struggle for existence.

In a fairly warm indoor temperature six or seven broods probably develop annually in a latitude like that of Washington, D. C.

LITERATURE.

In 1758,¹ Linnæus described this species, giving it its specific name from its known habitat at that time. On this head he wrote "*Habitat in Pisis omnis generis, e China allatis*," showing that its injurious habit was known even at that early date, and that China was evidently the original home of this species.

It will not be necessary to mention all of the references cited in the bibliography which will follow.

In 1890 Dr. J. A. Lintner⁹ published the first general account of this species. His published life history was a surmise, and later proved to be incorrect by his own statement. In 1896 Messrs. Osborn and Mally¹⁶ gave a more extended account of this species, based on its occurrence in Iowa, with notes on its life history, effects of fumigation with carbon bisulphid, and results of germination tests to determine the effect of bisulphid of carbon on the fumigated seed. The difference in comparison with a check lot showed practically no injury by this form of treatment, the final conclusion being reached that "the germinating power of the seeds was not impaired." Three new food plants were mentioned—green field peas, horse beans, and soy beans. Unfortunately this species was confused with the related four-spotted bean weevil, both being present in the seeds under observation. The following year, 1897, the writer¹⁷ brought together a summarized account of this species based largely on personal inves-

tigations, and the year afterwards¹⁸ gave a more general economic account, together with figures and brief descriptions of the egg and postembryonic larva. In 1909 Lefroy and Howlett²¹ recorded three new food plants.

It is interesting to note that it has been noticed of this weevil that material infested by it undergoes marked elevation in temperature, particularly at times when the beetles are undergoing transformation and issuing from the seed. In one instance, the temperature of a small sack of seed infested by the cowpea weevil was found to be 25° F. higher than the surrounding atmosphere.

METHODS OF CONTROL.

General remedies.—The remedies to be employed for the cowpea weevil are practically the same as for the bean weevil and the four-spotted bean weevil, both of which have the same habit of breeding continuously in stored seed. Remedies are fully discussed under "Methods of control" in a previous article on the broad-bean weevil.^a Bisulphid of carbon and hydrocyanic-acid gas fumigation are the best. The hot water remedy, dry heat, and the introduction of parasites from localities where these are established, into others where they are not known to occur, are all desirable. It should be added that it is impossible to prevent injury in the field or to stamp this species out, since it is already too well established from Maryland southward and westward.

Holding over the seed, as practiced for the pea and broad-bean weevils, is a useless remedy for this species.

Full directions for the application of dry heat and of hot water, and for fumigation with bisulphid of carbon, are given in the article on the broad-bean weevil and instructions for fumigation with hydrocyanic-acid gas are furnished in Circular 112 of the Bureau of Entomology.

Drying the seed.—Frequent inquiry is made in regard to the control of weevils in cowpeas by what is known as "kiln drying," a method which is stated by correspondents in the South to be used in California. Inquiry of several agents of this bureau who have been engaged in work in California fails to elicit the fact that the kiln-drying process is used in that State; indeed, we have no specific knowledge of the use of this practice in any locality. There is, however, a process which is sometimes so termed. It consists of passing cowpeas, grain, and other seeds and foodstuffs over heated pipes, or passing heated air through them in such a manner as to subject the infested material to a temperature of 135° to 140° F., which is fatal to the larvæ and adults of the cowpea and other weevils, as it is also to their eggs. This process is at present used mainly for grain, espe-

^a Bul. 96, Pt. V, Bur. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., pp. 75-80, 1912.

cially for corn stored in elevator tanks, and has proved to be quite efficient. While we have advised this remedy for some time, we have had no opportunity to test it personally and none of our correspondents has written in regard to its value. There is no reason, however, for supposing that it should not prove effective to all insects in cowpeas or other leguminous seed as well as to those in other stored products. This process is simplified by the use of a machine called a "dryer." Several forms of this instrument are in use. They are manufactured by firms in Massachusetts, Chicago, Ill., and New York State.

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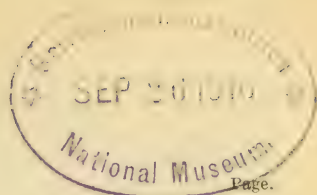
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INDEX.



<i>Acanthoscelides oblectus</i> —	Page.
incubation period.....	87
prey of <i>Pediculoides ventricosus</i>	67
Acarina in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Acompsia pseudospretella</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
“Adsuki” beans. (See <i>Phaseolus radiatus</i> .)	
<i>Æthriostoma undulata</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Aleurobius farinæ</i> = <i>Tyroglyphus farinæ</i>	7
<i>Alphitobius diaperinus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Alphitobius piceus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Alphitophagus bifasciatus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Alphitophagus 4-pustulatus</i> = <i>A. bifasciatus</i>	5
<i>Amphicerus bicaudatus</i> , comparison with <i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>	50
<i>Anobium paniceum</i> = <i>Sitodrepa panicea</i>	4
<i>Anthrenus varius</i> = <i>A. verbasci</i>	3
<i>Anthrenus verbasci</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Apate castanea</i>	32
<i>Apate frumentaria</i> Motschulsky= <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	30, 32
<i>Apate rufa</i> = <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	30
<i>Aphis rumicis</i> , bibliographic reference.....	81
Apple twig-borer. (See <i>Amphicerus bicaudatus</i> .)	
Arrowroot, powdered, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	32
<i>Asopia farinalis</i> = <i>Pyralis farinalis</i>	7
<i>Atropos divinatoria</i> = <i>Troctes divinatoria</i>	7
<i>Attagenus megatoma</i> = <i>A. piceus</i>	3
<i>Attagenus piceus</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	54
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
Avocado seeds, food of <i>Caulophilus latinasus</i>	19-20
<i>Batrachedra rileyi</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
Banana. (See <i>Musa ensete</i> .)	
Barley, stored, food of <i>Latheticus oryzae</i>	27
Bean—	
broad. (See <i>Vicia faba</i> .)	
horse. (See <i>Vicia faba</i> .)	
hyacinth. (See <i>Dolichos lablab</i> .)	
soy (see also <i>Soja hispida</i>).	
food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
Beans, stored black, food of <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	15
Bean weevil, four-spotted. (See <i>Pachymerus quadrimaculatus</i> .)	
Biscuits, ship's, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	32
Bisulphid of carbon—	
against Indian-meal moth.....	43
against lesser grain borer.....	37-38, 42-46
against <i>Silvanus surinamensis</i>	43
against <i>Tenebroides mauritanicus</i>	43
suggested against larger grain borer.....	51
<i>Blatta orientalis</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7

	Page.
<i>Blattella germanica</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
Blister beetles. (See <i>Meloidæ</i> .)	
Book louse. (See <i>Troctes divinatoria</i> .)	
Bostrychidæ in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Brachytarsus alternatus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Brachytarsus variegatus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Bruchus adustus</i> = <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	85
<i>Bruchus granarius</i>	72
bibliographic reference.....	80
<i>Bruchus obtectus</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	80
= <i>Acanthoscelides obtectus</i>	67
<i>Bruchus pectinicornis</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	93
= <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	85
“ <i>Bruchus pisi</i> ” of Olivier.....	72
<i>Bruchus pisorum</i>	72
bibliographic reference.....	82
<i>Bruchus quadrimaculatus</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	94
= <i>Pachymerus quadrimaculatus</i>	67
<i>Bruchus rufimanus</i> , bibliographic references.....	80
<i>Bruchus rufus</i> = <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	85
<i>Bruchus scutellaris</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	93
= <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	84, 85
Bulbs, edible, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	33
Buprestidæ, alleged irritation due to bites.....	67
Cabinet beetle—	
larger. (See <i>Trogoderma tarsale</i> .)	
ornate. (See <i>Trogoderma ornatum</i> .)	
small. (See <i>Anthrenus verbasci</i> .)	
Cadelle. (See <i>Tenebroides mauritanicus</i> .)	
<i>Cænocorse ratzeburgi</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	56
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Cænocorse subdepressa</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Cajanus indica</i> —	
bibliographic references.....	93, 94
food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
<i>Calandra granaria</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	47
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	54, 56
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Calandra oryza</i> —	
association with <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i> in grain.....	15
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	54
fumigation with bisulphid of carbon.....	48
fumigation with hydrocyanic-acid gas.....	40-42
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
in stored corn.....	8
<i>Calandra remotepunctata</i> —	
a synonym.....	1
= <i>C. granaria</i>	5

Carbon bisulphid—	Page.
against broad-bean weevil.....	76-77
cost as a fumigant in comparison with carbon tetrachlorid.....	56-57
Carbon tetrachlorid as a substitute for carbon bisulphid in fumigation against insects.....	53-57
Carpet-beetle, black. (See <i>Attagenus piceus</i> .)	
<i>Carpophilus dimidiatus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Carpophilus pallipennis</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Cathartus advena</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	2
<i>Cathartus gemellatus</i> —	
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	2
in stored corn.....	8
<i>Catorama punctulata</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Catorama zæ</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Caulophilus latinasus</i> —	
adult, description.....	20-21
bibliographic list.....	23-24
descriptive.....	20-22
distribution.....	22
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
life history and habits, summary.....	23
literature.....	22-23
occurrence in the United States, notes.....	19-20
<i>Caulophilus sculpturatus</i> —	
bibliographic references.....	23
comparison with <i>C. latinasus</i> and <i>Rhyncolus cylindrirostris</i>	21
= <i>C. latinasus</i>	22
Cereals, stored—	
food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	29
list of insects affecting them.....	1-7
Cheese mite. (See <i>Tyroglyphus siro</i> .)	
Chick-peas. (See <i>Cicer arietinum</i> .)	
CHITTENDEN, F. H., papers—	
“A List of Insects Affecting Stored Cereals”.....	1-7
“The Broad-bean Weevil (<i>Laria rufimana</i> Boh.)”.....	59-82
“The Broad-nosed Grain Weevil (<i>Caulophilus latinasus</i> Say)”.....	19-24
“The Cowpea Weevil (<i>Pachymerus chinensis</i> L.)”.....	83-94
“The Larger Grain-borer (<i>Dinoderus truncatus</i> Horn)”.....	48-52
“The Lesser Grain-borer (<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i> Fab.)”.....	29-47
“The Long-headed Flour Beetle (<i>Lathetieus oryzae</i> Waterh.)”.....	25-28
“The Mexican Grain Beetle (<i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i> Reitt.)”.....	8-13
“The Siamese Grain Beetle (<i>Lophocateras pusillus</i> Klug)”.....	14-18
CHITTENDEN, F. H., and POPENOE, C. H., “Carbon Tetrachlorid as a Substitute for Carbon Bisulphid in Fumigation against Insects”.....	53-57
“Cholum seed.” (See <i>Sorghum vulgare</i> .)	
<i>Chremylus rubiginosus</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	80
parasite of <i>Laria rufimana</i>	72
<i>Cicer arietinum</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	94
food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
seeds, food of <i>Caulophilus latinasus</i>	19
Cigarette beetle. (See <i>Lasioderma serricorne</i> .)	
Clavicorns, various, in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3

Cockroach—

German. (See *Blattella germanica*.)Oriental. (See *Blatta orientalis*.)

Page.

Cork, food of *Rhizopertha dominica*..... 32Corn meal, food of *Pharaxonotha kirschi*..... 11-12Corn sap-beetle. (See *Carpophilus pallipennis*.)

Corn, stored, food of—

Calandra oryza..... 8*Cathartus gemellatus*..... 8*Caulophilus latinasus*..... 19, 20*Dinoderus truncatus*..... 48, 50, 51*Latheticus oryza*..... 27*Lophocateres pusillus*..... 14, 18*Pharaxontha kirschi*..... 8*Rhizopertha dominica*..... 33*Cossonus pinguis*—

bibliographic reference..... 23

= *Caulophilus latinasus*..... 22

Cowpeas, food of—

Pachymerus chinensis..... 83*Pachymerus quadrimaculatus*..... 83Cowpea weevil. (See *Pachymerus chinensis*.)Croton bug. (See *Blattella germanica*.)

Cucujidæ in list of insects affecting stored cereals..... 2-3

Curculio chinensis—

bibliographic reference..... 93

= *Pachymerus chinensis*..... 85*Cytisus spinosus*, *Rhizopertha dominica* found under bark..... 32

Dermestidæ in list of insects affecting stored cereals..... 3

Dinoderus, description of genus..... 49*Dinoderus dominica*=*Rhizopertha dominica*..... 4*Dinoderus frumentarius*=*Rhizopertha dominica*..... 32*Dinoderus punctatus*..... 49

incorrectly determined as affecting stored corn..... 1

Dinoderus pusillus..... 49= *Rhizopertha dominica*..... 4, 30*Dinoderus* sp., bibliographic reference..... 47, 52*Dinoderus substriatus*..... 49*Dinoderus truncatus*..... 9

adult, description..... 49

bibliography..... 52

comparison with *Rhizopertha dominica*..... 29

description..... 48-50

history and literature..... 50

in list of insects affecting stored cereals..... 4

office experiments..... 50-52

Dolichos biflorus—

bibliographic reference..... 94

food plant of *Pachymerus chinensis*..... 89*Dolichos lablab*, bibliographic reference..... 94Drugs, food of *Rhizopertha dominica*..... 29Drug-store beetle. (See *Sitodrepa panicea*.)

"Dryer," machine for killing insects in infested seed, by heat..... 92-93

	Page.
<i>Echocerus cornutus</i> = <i>Gnathocerus cornutus</i>	5
<i>Ectobia germanica</i> = <i>Blattella germanica</i>	7
Eggplant seeds, food of <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	15
Elevator mite. (See <i>Tyroglyphus longior</i> .)	
"English Dwarf" beans, colloquial name for broad beans.....	59
<i>Ephestia cahiritella</i> = <i>E. cautella</i>	6
<i>Ephestia cautella</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	55
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Ephestia desuetella</i> = <i>E. ficulella</i>	6
<i>Ephestia elutella</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Ephestia ficulella</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Ephestia kuehniella</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	55
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Ephestia passulella</i> = <i>E. cautella</i>	6
<i>Ephestia zæx</i> = <i>Plodia interpunctella</i>	6
<i>Ervum lens</i> , bibliographic reference.....	94
Fig moth. (See <i>Ephestia cautella</i> .)	
Flour-beetle—	
black. (See <i>Tribolium madens</i> .)	
broad-horned. (See <i>Gnathocerus cornutus</i> .)	
confused. (See <i>Tribolium confusum</i> .)	
depressed. (See <i>Cænocorse subdepressa</i> .)	
long-headed. (See <i>Latheticus oryzae</i> .)	
rust-red. (See <i>Tribolium navale</i> .)	
short-horned. (See <i>Latheticus oryzae</i> .)	
slender-horned. (See <i>Gnathocerus</i> [<i>Echocerus</i>] <i>maxillosus</i> .)	
small-eyed. (See <i>Cænocorse ratzeburgi</i> .)	
"Fire brat." (See <i>Lepisma domestica</i> .)	
Flour, food of—	
<i>Latheticus oryzae</i>	27
<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	15
<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	33, 35
Flour mite. (See <i>Tyroglyphus farinæ</i> .)	
Flour-moth, Mediterranean. (See <i>Ephestia kuehniella</i> .)	
Fumigator for stored-product insects.....	77-79
<i>Gelechia cerealella</i> = <i>Sitotroga cerealella</i>	6
"Getreide-Kapuciner," name given <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i> by Taschenberg....	30
<i>Gibbium psylloides</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Gibbium scotias</i> = <i>G. psylloides</i>	4
"Ginger, scraped," food of—	
<i>Caulophilus latinasus</i>	22
<i>Lasioderma serricorne</i>	22
Glycine. (See Bean, soy.)	
<i>Gnathocerus cornutus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Gnathocerus</i> (<i>Echocerus</i>) <i>maxillosus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals....	5
Gourd seeds, food of <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	15
Grain-beetle—	
flat. (See <i>Læmophlæus minutus</i> .)	
foreign. (See <i>Cathartus advena</i> .)	
merchant. (See <i>Silvanus mercator</i> .)	
Mexican. (See <i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i> .)	

Grain-beetle—Continued.

- rust-red. (See *Læmophlæus ferrugineus*.)
- saw-toothed. (See *Silvanus surinamensis*.)
- Siamese. (See *Lophocateres pusillus*.)
- square-necked. (See *Cathartus gemellatus*.)

Grain-borer—

- larger. (See *Dinoderus truncatus*.)
- lesser. (See *Rhizopertha dominica*.)

Grain-moth—

- Angoumois. (See *Sitotroga cerealella*.)
- European. (See *Tinea granella*.)

Grain, stored, food of—

	Page.
<i>Calandra oryza</i>	15
<i>Latheticus oryza</i>	27
<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	15
<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	32

Grain-weevil, broad-nosed. (See *Caulophilus latinasus*.)"Gram." (See *Phaseolus mungo*.)Granary weevil. (See *Calandra granaria*.)

Heat, dry, in control of broad-bean weevil..... 80

Hickory beetle, red-shouldered. (See *Sinoxylon basillare*.)

Holding over seed as remedy against broad-bean weevil..... 76

Horse beans, colloquial name for broad beans..... 59

Horse collar, infested and damaged by *Rhizopertha dominica*..... 33

Hydrocyanic-acid gas—

- against broad-bean weevil..... 77
- against lesser grain borer..... 38-42
- suggested against larger grain borer..... 51

Indian-meal moth. (See *Plodia interpunctella*.)

Insects affecting stored—

- cereals, early records..... 1-2
- cereals, list..... 1-7
- products, fumigator..... 77-79

"Kolu." (See *Phaseolus mungo*.)*Læmophlæus alternans* in list of insects affecting stored cereals..... 3*Læmophlæus ferrugineus* in list of insects affecting stored cereals..... 3*Læmophlæus minutus*—

- association with *Lophocateres pusillus* in rice..... 14
- carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant..... 54, 56
- in list of insects affecting stored cereals..... 3

Læmophlæus pusillus=*L. minutus*..... 3*Læmotmetus ferrugineus*=*L. rhizophagoides*..... 3*Læmotmetus rhizophagoides* in list of insects affecting stored cereals..... 3*Laria pisorum*, relation to *L. rufimana*..... 59, 61, 63*Laria rufimana*—

- adult, description..... 59, 60
- alleged poisonous nature..... 66-67
- attack, nature..... 70-71
- bibliography..... 80-82
- control methods..... 75-80
- description..... 59-61
- distribution..... 62
- egg, description..... 61
- enemies, natural..... 72, 74

<i>Laria rufimana</i> —Continued.	Page.
eradication, possibility.....	75-76
larva, postembryonic, description.....	61
life history, summary.....	70-71
literature and history.....	72
occurrence in California, notes.....	64-65
occurrence, records.....	62-65
remedies, experiments.....	74-75
<i>La: ioderma serricorne</i> —	
association with <i>Caulophilus latinasus</i> in scraped ginger.....	22
bibliographic reference.....	24
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>La: ioderma testaceum</i> = <i>L. serricorne</i>	4
<i>Latheticus</i> , description.....	25
<i>Latheticus oryzae</i> —	
adult, description.....	26
bibliographic list.....	28
descriptive.....	25-26
distribution, foreign.....	26
history and literature.....	27-28
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
occurrence in United States.....	27
<i>Latheticus prosopis</i> —	
bibliographic references.....	28
comparison with <i>L. oryzae</i>	28
Lentils, food plants of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
<i>Leptisma domestica</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Leptisma saccharina</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Lophocateres</i> , bibliographic reference.....	18
<i>Lophocateres nanus</i> , bibliographic reference.....	18
<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i> —	
adult, description.....	15-16
bibliography.....	18
description.....	15-17
distribution.....	17
habits.....	17-18
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
larva, description.....	16-17
pupa, description.....	17
<i>Lophocateres yvoni</i> , bibliographic reference.....	18
Lotus seeds, white, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	35
<i>Lyphia striolata</i> , bibliographic reference.....	28
<i>Lyphia striolatus</i> = <i>Latheticus oryzae</i>	5
Maize (see also corn)—	
ears, food of <i>Silvanus surinamensis</i>	50
ears, food of <i>Tribolium confusum</i>	50
stored, food of <i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>	29
Meal, food of <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	18
Meal snout-moth. (See <i>Pyralis farinalis</i> .)	
Mealworm—	
dark. (See <i>Tenebrio ob:curus</i> .)	
lesser. (See <i>Alphitobius diaperinus</i> .)	
yellow. (See <i>Tenebrio molitor</i> .)	

Mediterranean flour-moth. (See <i>Ephestia kuehniella</i> .)	Page.
<i>Melissoblastes gularis</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
Meloidæ, poisonous nature of bites.....	67
"Millet, pearl." (See <i>Pennisetum typhoideum</i> .)	
Mill mite. (See <i>Tyroglyphus americanus</i> .)	
Mite—	
cheese. (See <i>Tyroglyphus siro</i> .)	
elevator. (See <i>Tyroglyphus longior</i> .)	
flour. (See <i>Tyroglyphus farinæ</i> .)	
mill. (See <i>Tyroglyphus americanus</i> .)	
Moths, various, in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
"Muneta." (See <i>Phaseolus mungo</i> .)	
"Mung." (See <i>Phaseolus mungo</i> .)	
<i>Musa ensete</i> , preserved product, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	33
<i>Mylabris rufimana</i> , bibliographic reference.....	81
Neuropteroid insects in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Niptus hololeucus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Ceophora pseudospretella</i> = <i>Acompsia pseudospretella</i>	6
Orthoptera in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Oryzæus cathartoides</i> = <i>Læmotmetus rhizophagoides</i>	3
<i>Ostoma (Gaurambe) yvany</i> , bibliographic reference.....	18
<i>Ostoma pusillum</i> = <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	3
<i>Ostoma yvany</i> , bibliographic reference.....	18
<i>Pachymerus chinensis</i> —	
beetle, description.....	84-85
bibliography.....	93
control methods.....	92-93
descriptive.....	83-85
distribution.....	85-86
egg, description.....	85
food plants.....	89
generations, number.....	88
larva, postembryonic, description.....	85
literature.....	91-92
life-cycle periods.....	87-88
life history and habits.....	86-91
longevity of adults.....	89
oviposition.....	86-87
point of exit of beetle from seed.....	89-90
summary of life history.....	90-91
susceptibility of different varieties of cowpea to attack.....	90
synonymy.....	85
<i>Pachymerus</i> , descriptions of genus.....	83-84
<i>Pachymerus quadrimaculatus</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	55
infesting cowpeas.....	83
prey of <i>Pediculoides ventricosus</i>	67
<i>Palorus ratzeburgi</i> = <i>Cænocorse ratzeburgi</i>	5
<i>Palorus subdepressus</i> = <i>Cænocorse subdepressa</i>	5
<i>Panchlora surinamensis</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
Parasites, importation against broad-bean weevil.....	80
PARKER, WM. B., paper, "Notes on Occurrence [of Broad-bean Weevil] in California".....	64-65
Peanuts, stored, food of <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	17

Peas—	Page.
food of <i>Larid rufimana</i>	59
garden and field, food plants of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
pigeon. (See <i>Cajanus indica</i> .)	
Pea weevil. (See <i>Larid pisorum</i> .)	
<i>Pediculoides ventricosus</i> , enemy of—	
<i>Acanthoscelides obtectus</i>	67
<i>Larid rufimana</i> , cause of poisoning.....	66-67, 73
<i>Pachymerus quadrimaculatus</i>	67
<i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i>	12
<i>Peltis pusilla</i> , bibliographic reference.....	18
<i>Peltis yvanii</i> , bibliographic reference.....	18
<i>Pennisetum typhoideum</i> , seed; food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	33
<i>Periplaneta orientalis</i> = <i>Blatta orientalis</i>	7
<i>Plodia interpunctella</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	55
fumigation with bisulphid of carbon.....	43
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i> —	
adult, description.....	9
bibliographic references.....	13
description.....	9-10
egg, description.....	9
enemies.....	12
habits.....	11-12
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
larva, description.....	10
literature.....	10
pupa, description.....	10
<i>Phaseolus mungo</i> , food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
<i>Phaseolus radiatus</i> , food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
<i>Philoterme flavipes</i> = <i>Termes flavipes</i>	7
Phycitidæ in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Phylethus bifasciatus</i> = <i>Alphitophagus bifasciatus</i>	5
<i>Phyllodromia germanica</i> = <i>Blattella germanica</i>	7
<i>Pisum sativum</i> , bibliographic reference.....	94
Poisonous insects, immunity of some persons to stings and bites.....	67
Poisonous nature, alleged, of broad-bean weevil probably due to <i>Pediculoides ventricosus</i>	66-67
POPENOE, C. H., F. H. CHITTENDEN and, paper, "Carbon Tetrachlorid as a Substitute for Carbon Bisulphid in Fumigation against Insects".....	53-57
Prostephanus, bibliographic reference.....	52
Ptinidæ in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Ptinus brunneus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Ptinus fur</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Ptinus piceus</i> = <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	30
<i>Pyrallis farinalis</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Quercus suber</i> , <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i> found under bark.....	32
<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i> —	
bibliography.....	46-47
biologic notes.....	35-36
comparison with <i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>	49
conclusions as to remedies.....	46
description.....	30

<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i> —Continued.	Page.
distribution.....	31-32
egg, description.....	35
habits.....	32
history.....	32
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
larva, fully developed, description.....	36
larva, newly hatched, description.....	36
literature.....	32
notes and correspondence.....	32-35
remedies, experiments.....	36-45
<i>Rhizopertha pusilla</i> = <i>R. dominica</i>	4
Rhubarb, roots, stored, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	32
Rhynchophora in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5-6
<i>Rhyncolus cylindrirostris</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	23
comparison with <i>Caulophilus latinasus</i>	21
= <i>R. lignarius</i>	21
<i>Rhyncolus latinasus</i> —	
bibliographic references.....	23
= <i>Caulophilus latinasus</i>	22
<i>Rhyncolus lignarius</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	23
<i>R. cylindrirostris</i> a synonym.....	21
<i>Rhyncolus oryza</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Rhyzopertha pusilla</i> = <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	30
Rice, stored, food of—	
<i>Latheticus oryza</i>	25, 27
<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	14-15
<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	32, 33
Rice weevil. (See <i>Calandra oryza</i> .)	
Roach, Surinam. (See <i>Panchlora surinamensis</i> .)	
Roots, stored, food of <i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>	48-50
Rye, stored, food of—	
<i>Latheticus oryza</i>	27
<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	15
Rye straw in horse collar, infestation by <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	35
Sap-beetle, corn. (See <i>Carpophilus pallipennis</i> .)	
Scales on nursery stock, carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	53-54
<i>Sigalphus pallipes</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	80
parasite of <i>Laria rufimana</i>	72
<i>Sigalphus</i> sp., parasite of <i>Laria rufimana</i>	63
<i>Sigalphus thoracicus</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	80
parasite of <i>Laria rufimana</i>	72
<i>Silvanus advena</i> = <i>Cathartus advena</i>	2
<i>Silvanus bicornis</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	2
<i>Silvanus cassiae</i> auct.= <i>Cathartus gemellatus</i>	2
<i>Silvanus cassiae</i> incorrectly determined as affecting stored corn.....	1
<i>Silvanus frumentarius</i> = <i>S. surinamensis</i>	2
<i>Silvanus mercator</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	2

<i>Silvanus surinamensis</i> —	Page.
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	54-55
fumigation with bisulphid of carbon.....	43
in ears of maize.....	50
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	2
Silverfish. (See <i>Lepisma saccharina</i> .)	
<i>Sinoxylon basillare</i> , comparison with <i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>	50
<i>Sitodrepa panicea</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Sitophagus hololeptoides</i> = <i>Sitophagus solieri</i>	5
<i>Sitophagus solieri</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Sitophilus granarius</i> = <i>Calandra granaria</i>	5
<i>Sitophilus oryza</i> = <i>Calandra oryza</i>	5
<i>Sitotroga cerealla</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
Snout-moth, meal. (See <i>Pyralis farinalis</i> .)	
<i>Soja hispida</i> (see also Bean, soy)—	
beans, food of <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	17
Sorghum seed, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	33
<i>Sorghum vulgare</i> , seed, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	32
Soy bean. (See <i>Soja hispida</i> and Bean, soy.)	
Spider-beetle—	
brown. (See <i>Ptinus brunneus</i> .)	
white-marked. (See <i>Ptinus fur</i> .)	
<i>Stylopyga orientalis</i> = <i>Blatta orientalis</i>	7
Sun-heat against broad-bean weevil.....	74
<i>Synodendron dominica</i> , bibliographic reference.....	46
<i>Synodendron dominicum</i> = <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	30
<i>Synodendron pusillum</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	46
= <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	30
<i>Tenebrio molitor</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Tenebrio obscurus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Tenebrio tenebrioides</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
Tenebrionidæ in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4-5
<i>Tenebroides mauritanicus</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	54-55
fumigation with bisulphid of carbon.....	43
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Termes flavipes</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Thallisella conradti</i> —	
bibliographic references.....	13
= <i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i>	3
Tick beans, colloquial name for broad beans.....	59
<i>Tinea biselliella</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Tinea granella</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Tinea misella</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
<i>Tinea pallescentella</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
Tineina in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	6
Tribolium, association with <i>Pharaxonotha kirschi</i> in meal.....	11
<i>Tribolium confusum</i> —	
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	54
in ears of maize.....	50
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	4
<i>Tribolium ferrugineum</i> auct.= <i>T. confusum</i>	4

	Page.
<i>Tribolium ferrugineum</i> = <i>T. navale</i>	5
<i>Tribolium madens</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Tribolium navale</i> —	
association with <i>Lophocateres pusillus</i> in rice.....	14
carbon tetrachlorid as fumigant.....	54
fumigation with bisulphid of carbon.....	38, 43
fumigation with hydrocyanic-acid gas.....	40-42
in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	5
<i>Tricorynus zeæ</i> = <i>Catorama zeæ</i>	4
<i>Troctes corrodens</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Troctes divinatoria</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Trogoderma ornatum</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Trogoderma tarsale</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Trogosita mauritanica</i> = <i>Tenebroides mauritanicus</i>	3
Tubers, stored, food of <i>Dinoderus truncatus</i>	48
Turnip, wild prairie, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	33
<i>Typhæa fumata</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	3
<i>Tyroglyphus americanus</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Tyroglyphus farinæ</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Tyroglyphus longior</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Tyroglyphus siro</i> in list of insects affecting stored cereals.....	7
<i>Vicia faba</i> —	
germination tests of seed infested by <i>Laria rufimana</i>	68-69
seeds, food of <i>Laria rufimana</i>	60, 63, 66
<i>Vigna catjang</i> —	
bibliographic reference.....	94
food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
<i>Vigna sinensis</i> , food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
<i>Vigna unguiculatus</i> , food plant of <i>Pachymerus chinensis</i>	89
Water, hot, against broad bean weevil.....	75, 76
Weevil—	
broad-bean. (See <i>Laria rufimana</i> .)	
granary. (See <i>Calandra granaria</i> .)	
rice. (See <i>Calandra oryza</i> .)	
Wheat, stored, food of—	
<i>Latheticus oryzae</i>	27
<i>Lophocateres pusillus</i>	18
<i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	29, 32, 33, 35
White ant. (See <i>Termes flavipes</i> .)	
Windsor beans, colloquial name for broad beans.....	59
“Wood bug,” colloquial name for <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	29, 33
Wood of packing boxes and casks, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	29
Wood of sugar casks, food of <i>Rhizopertha dominica</i>	32
<i>Zelus renardii</i> , enemy of <i>Laria rufimana</i>	74

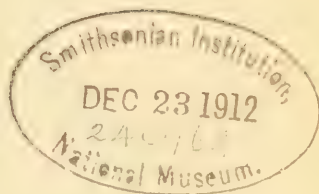
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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97.
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PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

CONTENTS AND INDEX.

ISSUED DECEMBER 4, 1912.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1912.

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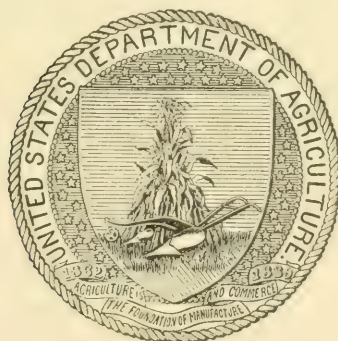
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WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1912.

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ROLLA P. CURRIE, *in charge of editorial work.*

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DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

A. L. QUAINANCE, *in charge.*

FRED JOHNSON, S. W. FOSTER,¹ P. R. JONES,¹ F. E. BROOKS, A. G. HAMMAR, E. W. SCOTT, R. L. NOUGARET, R. A. CUSHMAN, L. L. SCOTT, J. B. GILL, A. C. BAKER, W. M. DAVIDSON, E. B. BLAKESLEE, W. B. WOOD, E. H. SIEGLER, F. L. SIMANTON, *entomological assistants.*

J. F. ZIMMER, W. S. ABBOTT, W. H. SILL, *entomological assistants, employed in enforcement of insecticide act, 1910.*

¹ Resigned.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY.

Washington, D. C., October 26, 1912.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith, for publication as Bulletin No. 97, seven papers dealing with deciduous fruit insects and insecticides. These papers, which were issued separately during 1911-12, are as follows: Spraying Experiments Against the Grape Leafhopper in the Lake Erie Valley, by Fred Johnson; Life History of the Codling Moth and Its Control on Pears in California, by S. W. Foster; Vineyard Spraying Experiments Against the Rose-Chafer in the Lake Erie Valley, by Fred Johnson; The California Peach Borer, by Dudley Moulton; Notes on the Peach and Plum Slug, by R. A. Cushman; Notes on the Peach Bud Mite, by A. L. Quaintance; The Grape Scale, by James F. Zimmer.

Respectfully,

L. O. HOWARD,

Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

Hon. JAMES WILSON,

Secretary of Agriculture.

P R E F A C E .

The present series of articles on deciduous fruit insects and insecticides, Parts I to VII, comprises Bulletin 97.

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The Grape Scale, comprising the seventh and last paper, deals with an insect which has been the cause of frequent complaint, especially in the environs of Washington, during the past few years. The shedding of bark from the grape is, on the whole, unfavorable to scale insects, yet the present species, in several instances noted, has shown its ability to develop to a decidedly injurious extent.

A. L. QUAINANCE,

In Charge of Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

CONTENTS.¹

	Page.
Spraying experiments against the grape leafhopper in the Lake Erie Valley..... <i>Fred Johnson</i> ..	1
Introduction.....	1
Characteristics and habits of the grape leafhopper.....	2
Life history.....	3
Hibernation.....	3
Spring emergence of adults.....	4
The egg stage.....	5
The nymphal stages.....	6
The adult.....	6
Remedial measures.....	7
Spray applications against the nymphs.....	8
Conclusion.....	12
Life-history of the codling moth and its control on pears in California..... <i>S. W. Foster</i> ..	13
Introduction.....	13
Life-history notes on the codling moth in California.....	14
Overwintering larvæ.....	14
Spring brood of pupæ.....	14
Spring brood of moths.....	17
The first generation.....	18
The second generation.....	24
Review of life history for the years 1909 and 1910.....	26
Natural enemies.....	32
The control of the codling moth on pears in California.....	32
Effect of sprays on places of entrance into pears by larvæ.....	33
Commercial results from spraying.....	41
Summary and recommendations.....	51
Vineyard spraying experiments against the rose-chafer in the Lake Erie Valley..... <i>Fred Johnson</i> ..	53
Introduction.....	53
Habits of the adult.....	54
Habits of the larva.....	56
Remedial measures.....	57
Handpicking the beetles.....	57
Spraying with arsenicals.....	58
The use of sweetened arsenicals.....	62
Time to make the spray applications.....	63
Cleaning up breeding places.....	64
Summary.....	64
The California peach borer..... <i>Dudley Moulton</i> ..	65
Introduction.....	65
Distribution and food plants.....	66
Distribution.....	66
Native food plants.....	67

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The California peach borer—Continued.

Distribution and food plants—Continued.

Page.

History of fruit growing in the Santa Clara Valley..... 67

Limits of areas in which injury occurs..... 67

Varieties of cultivated fruits attacked; resistant budding and grafting
stocks; soil conditions as bearing on infestation..... 68

Descriptions, seasonal history, and habits..... 68

The egg..... 68

The larva..... 69

The pupa..... 74

The adult..... 77

Natural enemies..... 83

Methods of control..... 83

Experiments with preventives..... 83

“Worming” and applying washes in the Santa Clara Valley..... 85

Formulas for washes used..... 86

The carbon bisulphid treatment..... 87

Methods used against the eastern peach borer..... 87

Summary and recommendations..... 88

Bibliography..... 88

Notes on the peach and plum slug..... *R. A. Cushman*..... 91

Introduction..... 91

Observations on the peach and plum slug in 1910..... 92

Life history..... 94

The adult..... 94

The egg..... 96

The larva..... 96

The prepupa..... 98

The pupa..... 99

Total developmental period..... 100

Extent of damage..... 100

Natural enemies..... 100

Remedies..... 102

The peach bud mite..... *A. L. Quaintance*..... 103

Introduction..... 103

History..... 103

Economic importance..... 106

Habits and natural history..... 110

Systematic relationships and other economic species..... 111

Remedial considerations..... 113

The grape scale..... *James F. Zimmer*..... 115

Introduction..... 115

Distribution and food plants..... 115

Habits and natural history..... 116

Description..... 117

Parasites..... 118

Preventives and remedies..... 120

Lime-sulphur wash..... 120

Self-boiled lime-sulphur wash..... 120

Other sprays..... 121

When to spray..... 121

Bibliography..... 122

Index..... 125

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE I. Fig. 1.—Cover crop of vetch in vineyard of Mr. John Higgins, North East, Pa. Fig. 2.—Cover crop of turnips in vineyard of Mottier Bros., North East, Pa.; vineyard badly infested by grape leafhopper, which was effectively treated with blackleaf tobacco-extract spray.....	8
II. Fig. 1.—Injury by grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i>) to unsprayed vines. Fig. 2.—Perfect foliage of sprayed vines. Views from experimental plats in vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper, at North East, Pa.....	10
III. General view of the Whitman pear orchard, with power-spraying outfit in operation in spraying experiments against codling moth, Concord, Cal., 1909.....	42
IV. Injury by rose-chaffer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>) to fruit on unsprayed grapevine in the vineyard of Mr. C. F. Hirt, at North East, Pa.....	60
V. The protection afforded by spraying; vine from row adjoining the unsprayed vine shown in Plate IV.....	60
VI. Injury by rose-chaffer to fruit on unsprayed grapevine in the vineyard of Mr. George Cook, at North East, Pa.....	60
VII. Protection afforded by spraying; vine from vineyard of Prospect Park Fruit Farms Co., adjoining vineyard of Mr. George Cook, North East, Pa.....	60
VIII. The California peach borer (<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>). Apricot orchard, showing trees injured and killed by the borer.....	68
IX. The California peach borer. Rearing cages in laboratory yard at San Jose, Cal., used in study of its life history.....	80
X. The California peach borer. Fig. 1.—Base of apricot tree, showing injury by larvæ. Fig. 2.—Wire cage, used in determining period of emergence of moths, in place around tree.....	80
XI. Peach leaves showing work of peach and plum slug (<i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i>).....	92
XII. Injury about two weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite (<i>Tarsonemus waiti</i>).....	104
XIII. Injury several weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite....	108
XIV. Showing condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite.....	110
XV. Showing condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite.....	112
XVI. Injury to buds supposedly due to the peach bud mite.....	112
XVII. Grape canes showing infestation by the grape scale, <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uva</i>	116

	Page.
PLATE XVIII. The grape scale. Fig. 1.—Showing how the young scales settle, more or less, in longitudinal rows. Fig. 2.—Full-grown male and female scales; also many parasitized individuals. Fig. 3.—Pygidium of adult female, showing circumgenital glands and orifice, lobes, and spines.....	116
XIX. The grape scale. Fig. 1.—Adult winged male. Fig. 2.—Genitalia of male. Fig. 3.—Antenna of male. Fig. 4.—Serrations on costal vein. Fig. 5.—Tarsus and claw of male.....	118

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 1. The grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i> var. <i>coloradensis</i>): Adult.....	1
2 The grape leafhopper: Nymph of the first molt.....	3
3. The grape leafhopper: Fully developed nymph of the fifth molt.....	3
4. Grape leaf in early stages of attack by the grape leafhopper, showing the characteristic mottling of the upper surface.....	4
5. Grape leaf showing final result of attack by the grape leafhopper; leaf withered and brown before the fruit is mature.....	5
6. Weekly emergence of codling moths from overwintered material at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	18
7. Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	27
8. Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	27
9. Weekly emergence of codling moths from material collected from banded apple and pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	28
10. Band records from 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.....	29
11. Band records from 15 Bartlett pear trees at Suisun, Cal., 1910.....	30
12. Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.....	31
13. Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 15 pear trees at Suisun, Cal., 1910.....	32
14. Band records of the codling moth from apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	32
15. Weekly emergence of codling moths from larvæ collected from banded apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	33
16. Condition of grape blossom-buds at the time the rose-chafer (<i>Macro-dactylus subspinosus</i>) first appears, and when the first poison spray should be applied.....	54
17. Injury by the rose-chafer to grape blossom-buds.....	54
18. The rose-chafer (<i>Macro-dactylus subspinosus</i>): Adult, larva and details, pupa, work.....	55
19. Injury by the rose-chafer to berries of grape.....	56
20. Grape cluster showing almost total destruction of berries through feeding of the rose-chafer.....	57
21. Grape clusters from which berries injured by the rose-chafer have fallen.....	58
22. The California peach borer: Adult, larva, pupa, and details.....	70
23. Cage used in rearing the peach and plum slug.....	93
24. Developmental stages of peach and plum slug (<i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i>): Adult, egg, larva, and pupa.....	95
25. <i>Hyperallus caliroæ</i> , a parasite of the peach and plum slug.....	101
26. The grape scale, <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i> : Newly hatched larva and details.....	117
27. Cage used in rearing parasites of the grape scale.....	119

ERRATA AND ADDENDA

Page 83, under the heading "Natural Enemies" *Cryptus (Hamoplex) tejonensis*, Cress. should have been included, since it is a parasite of *Sanninoidea opalescens*.

Page 101, footnote, for 39 read 40 and for 737 read 189.

Page 120, line 6, for *Mymaridæ* read *Encyrtidæ*.

Page 120, lines 7 and 12, after *Girault* insert *MS*.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

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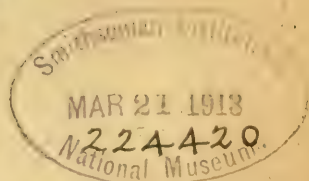
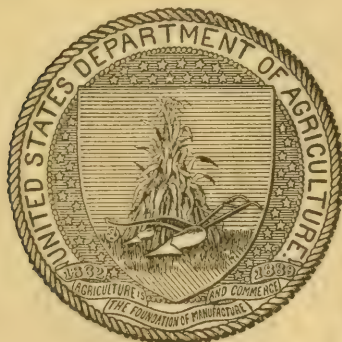
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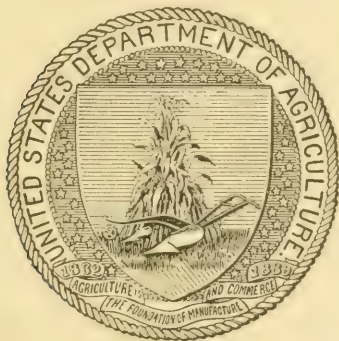
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CONTENTS.¹

	Page.
Spraying experiments against the grape leafhopper in the Lake Erie Valley..... <i>Fred Johnson</i> ..	1
Introduction.....	1
Characteristics and habits of the grape leafhopper.....	2
Life history.....	3
Hibernation.....	3
Spring emergence of adults.....	4
The egg stage.....	5
The nymphal stages.....	6
The adult.....	6
Remedial measures.....	7
Spray applications against the nymphs.....	8
Conclusion.....	12
Life history of the codling moth and its control on pears in California..... <i>S. W. Foster</i> ..	13
Introduction.....	13
Life-history notes on the codling moth in California.....	14
Overwintering larvæ.....	14
Spring brood of pupæ.....	14
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The first generation.....	18
The second generation.....	24
Review of life history for the years 1909 and 1910.....	26
Natural enemies.....	32
The control of the codling moth on pears in California.....	32
Effect of sprays on places of entrance into pears by larvæ.....	33
Commercial results from spraying.....	41
Summary and recommendations.....	51
Vineyard spraying experiments against the rose-chaffer in the Lake Erie Valley..... <i>Fred Johnson</i> ..	53
Introduction.....	53
Habits of the adult.....	54
Habits of the larva.....	56
Remedial measures.....	57
Handpicking the beetles.....	57
Spraying with arsenicals.....	58
The use of sweetened arsenicals.....	62
Time to make the spray applications.....	63
Cleaning up breeding places.....	64
Summary.....	64
The California peach borer..... <i>Dudley Moulton</i> ..	65
Introduction.....	65
Distribution and food plants.....	66
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The California peach borer—Continued.

Distribution and food plants—Continued.	Page.
History of fruit growing in the Santa Clara Valley.....	67
Limits of areas in which injury occurs.....	67
Varieties of cultivated fruits attacked; resistant budding and grafting stocks; soil conditions as bearing on infestation.....	68
Descriptions, seasonal history, and habits.....	68
The egg.....	68
The larva.....	69
The pupa.....	74
The adult.....	77
Natural enemies.....	83
Methods of control.....	83
Experiments with preventives.....	83
“Worming” and applying washes in the Santa Clara Valley.....	85
Formulas for washes used.....	86
The carbon bisulphid treatment.....	87
Methods used against the eastern peach borer.....	87
Summary and recommendations.....	88
Bibliography.....	88
Notes on the peach and plum slug..... <i>R. A. Cushman</i> ..	91
Introduction.....	91
Observations on the peach and plum slug in 1910.....	92
Life history.....	94
The adult.....	94
The egg.....	96
The larva.....	96
The prepupa.....	98
The pupa.....	99
Total developmental period.....	100
Extent of damage.....	100
Natural enemies.....	100
Remedies.....	102
The peach bud mite..... <i>A. L. Quaintance</i> ..	103
Introduction.....	103
History.....	103
Economic importance.....	106
Habits and natural history.....	110
Systematic relationships and other economic species.....	111
Remedial considerations.....	113
The grape scale..... <i>James F. Zimmer</i> ..	115
Introduction.....	115
Distribution and food plants.....	115
Habits and natural history.....	116
Description.....	117
Parasites.....	118
Preventives and remedies.....	120
Lime-sulphur wash.....	120
Self-boiled lime-sulphur wash.....	120
Other sprays.....	121
When to spray.....	121
Bibliography.....	122
Index.....	125

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE I. Fig. 1.—Cover crop of vetch in vineyard of Mr. John Higgins, North East, Pa. Fig. 2.—Cover crop of turnips in vineyard of Mottier Bros., North East, Pa.; vineyard badly infested by grape leafhopper, which was effectively treated with blackleaf tobacco-extract spray.....	8
II. Fig 1.—Injury by grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i>) to unsprayed vines. Fig. 2.—Perfect foliage of sprayed vines. Views from experimental plats in vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper, at North East, Pa.....	10
III. General view of the Whitman pear orchard, with power-spraying outfit in operation in spraying experiments against codling moth, Concord, Cal., 1909.....	42
IV. Injury by rose-chafer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>) to fruit on unsprayed grapevine in the vineyard of Mr. C. F. Hirt, at North East, Pa.....	60
V. The protection afforded by spraying; vine from row adjoining the unsprayed vine shown in Plate IV.....	60
VI. Injury by rose-chafer to fruit on unsprayed grapevine in the vineyard of Mr. George Cook, at North East, Pa.....	60
VII. Protection afforded by spraying; vine from vineyard of Prospect Park Fruit Farms Co., adjoining vineyard of Mr. George Cook, North East, Pa.....	60
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X. The California peach borer. Fig. 1.—Base of apricot tree, showing injury by larvæ. Fig. 2.—Wire cage, used in determining period of emergence of moths, in place around tree.....	80
XI. Peach leaves showing work of peach and plum slug (<i>Caliroa [Eriocampoides] amygdalina</i>).....	92
XII. Injury about two weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite (<i>Tarsonemus waiti</i>).....	104
XIII. Injury several weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite.....	108
XIV. Showing condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite.....	110
XV. Showing condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite.....	112
XVI. Injury to buds supposedly due to the peach bud mite.....	112
XVII. Grape canes showing infestation by the grape scale. <i>Aspidiotus (Diaspidotus) uræ</i>	116

	Page.
PLATE XVIII. The grape scale. Fig. 1.—Showing how the young scales settle, more or less, in longitudinal rows. Fig. 2.—Full-grown male and female scales; also many parasitized individuals. Fig. 3.—Pygidium of adult female, showing circumgenital glands and orifice, lobes, and spines.....	116
XIX. The grape scale. Fig. 1.—Adult winged male. Fig. 2.—Genitalia of male. Fig. 3.—Antenna of male. Fig. 4.—Serrations on costal vein. Fig. 5.—Tarsus and claw of male.....	118

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 1. The grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i> var. <i>coloradensis</i>): Adult....	1
2. The grape leafhopper: Nymph of the first molt.....	3
3. The grape leafhopper: Fully developed nymph of the fifth molt.....	3
4. Grape leaf in early stages of attack by the grape leafhopper, showing the characteristic mottling of the upper surface.....	4
5. Grape leaf showing final result of attack by the grape leafhopper; leaf withered and brown before the fruit is mature.....	5
6. Weekly emergence of codling moths from overwintered material at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	18
7. Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	27
8. Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	27
9. Weekly emergence of codling moths from material collected from banded apple and pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	28
10. Band records from 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.....	29
11. Band records from 15 Bartlett pear trees at Suisun, Cal., 1910.....	30
12. Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.....	31
13. Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 15 pear trees at Suisun, Cal., 1910.....	32
14. Band records of the codling moth from apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	32
15. Weekly emergence of codling moths from larvæ collected from banded apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	33
16. Condition of grape blossom-buds at the time the rose-chaffer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>) first appears, and when the first poison spray should be applied.....	54
17. Injury by the rose-chaffer to grape blossom-buds.....	54
18. The rose-chaffer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>): Adult, larva and details, pupa, work.....	55
19. Injury by the rose-chaffer to berries of grape.....	56
20. Grape cluster showing almost total destruction of berries through feeding of the rose-chaffer.....	57
21. Grape clusters from which berries injured by the rose-chaffer have fallen.....	58
22. The California peach borer: Adult, larva, pupa, and details.....	70
23. Cage used in rearing the peach and plum slug.....	93
24. Developmental stages of peach and plum slug (<i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i>): Adult, egg, larva, and pupa.....	59
25. <i>Hyperallus caliroæ</i> , a parasite of the peach and plum slug.....	101
26. The grape scale, <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uva</i> : Newley hatched larva and details.....	117
27. Cage used in rearing parasites of the grape scale.....	119

ADDENDUM.

Page 83, under the heading "Natural Enemies" *Cryptus (Hamoplex) tejonensis*, Cress. should have been included, since it is a parasite of *Sanninoidea opalescens*.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES

SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST THE GRAPE LEAF-HOPPER IN THE LAKE ERIE VALLEY.

By FRED JOHNSON,
Agent and Expert.

INTRODUCTION.

The grape leafhopper (*Typhlocyba comes* Say) (fig. 1) is an enemy of grapevines familiar to almost every vineyardist, and doubtless at times it has become so numerous and destructive in his vineyard as to cause him considerable anxiety. Usually, however, in the vineyards of the Lake Erie Valley, serious depredations by this pest are confined to somewhat limited areas adjacent to rough lands and woodlots. A few vines at the ends of the rows or a few rows along the outside of vineyards will be injured year after year until the crop yield on these vines is considerably reduced. Under these conditions it receives slight attention from the average vineyardist and is regarded as more or less of a negligible quantity. Periodically, however, some as yet unknown conditions seem to favor its multiplication and it spreads over wide areas causing injury amounting to many thousands of dollars. Such a condition obtained in the vineyards of Chautauqua County, in the vicinity of Westfield, N. Y., during the seasons of 1901 and 1902, when many hundreds of acres of vineyards suffered greatly from the injury wrought by this pest. In 1903 the insect disappeared to a considerable extent and serious injury was again confined to limited areas until the season of 1910. The insect is now manifestly on the increase and during the past season (1910) spread through large blocks of vineyard. In fact,



FIG. 1.—The grape leafhopper (*Typhlocyba comes* var. *coloradensis*): Adult. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

toward the latter end of the summer its presence in more or less destructive numbers was evident throughout the entire grape belt. By far the greater injury occurred, however, in those vineyards portions of which have been continuously infested. With the general increase of this pest throughout the Lake Erie Valley there has developed a feeling of anxiety on the part of many vineyardists and a general inquiry is being made as to the best means of holding it in check.

Heretofore the chief factors in the lack of success of the vineyardist in his efforts to combat this pest have been that he has either failed to recognize the most vulnerable stage in its life history or else he has minimized its capacity for injury until this period has passed, only to be filled with regrets later in the season when his vines are swarming with the winged adults and the foliage is so badly injured by them that it presents a brown and scorched appearance which renders it functionless at a period when healthy leaves are necessary to the plant for the purpose of elaborating the sugar of the fruit and for the proper maturing of the new growth so that it will withstand the severity of the winter and make a vigorous growth in the following spring. If, however, the vineyardist will acquaint himself with the habits and development of this pest there is no doubt that he can combat it successfully when it is in the immature stages, before its wings are fully developed, by the thorough application of a contact spray.

CHARACTERISTICS AND HABITS OF THE GRAPE LEAFHOPPER.

Before proceeding to discuss remedial measures, the primary object of this paper, it may be well to consider briefly the characteristics, habits, and life history of the grape leafhopper, inasmuch as they vary greatly from those of another very destructive pest of the grapevine, namely, the grape rootworm.

The grape leafhopper is a minute insect, less than one-eighth of an inch long. The body and wings are of a light yellowish color, and the wings entirely envelop the upper part of the abdomen in a rooflike covering when the insect is at rest. This position of the wings has an important bearing on the killing effect of a contact spray. As the hibernation period approaches, the more pronounced yellow marking of the wings and body changes to an orange-red, which, however, exists only during the winter months and disappears after the insect has fed for a short time on the foliage of the vine during the following spring. These winged forms are the mature or adult insects and are the forms most familiar to the casual observer. The adults are frequently found in large numbers leaping and flying actively among the foliage of the vines during the early part of the grape-picking season, in September and early October. Sometimes during bright,

warm afternoons of early autumn the air will be filled with thousands of these little creatures drifting somewhat aimlessly on the light breeze and causing considerable annoyance by getting into the eyes, ears, and mouth of the beholder.

A close observation of the underside of the leaves of grapevines at this season is likely to reveal the immature or nymphal stage of the insect (fig. 2). These vary greatly in size, from those just hatched to the full-grown nymphs with well-developed wing pads (fig. 3), but they have always the same general form. These leafhoppers belong to the same order of insects as do the scale insects and the plant-lice and secure their food by sucking the juices from the plant in much the same manner as the mosquito sucks blood from an animal. A knowledge of this method of taking food is of the greatest importance from an economic standpoint, since insects which take their food in this way are usually amenable to a spray application of



FIG. 2.—The grape leafhopper: Nymph of the first molt. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

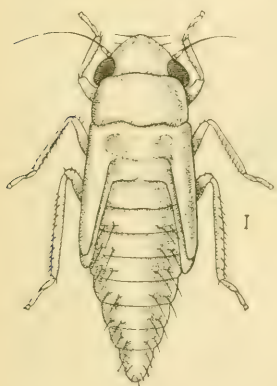


FIG. 3.—The grape leafhopper: Fully developed nymph of the fifth molt. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

an entirely different quality from that which is used in the case of insects which chew or masticate their food. Sucking insects are usually combated by the use of some caustic or smothering substance which must come in direct contact with the outside of the body of each individual, practically at the time of application and in sufficient quantity and strength to effect its almost immediate destruction; whereas, in the case of the chewing insect a stomach poison must be applied, not to the body of the insect, but to the surface of that portion of the plant or fruit upon which the insect feeds.

The adults and the nymphs of the grape leafhopper feed upon the underside of the grape leaf and by sucking the juices therefrom cause it to take on a yellowish, mottled appearance (fig. 4), which later turns brown, and where the infestation is heavy the leaves dry out and become functionless before the fruit is mature. (See fig. 5.)

LIFE HISTORY.

HIBERNATION.

The grape leafhoppers pass the winter as winged adults, which migrate from the vines during October. By the time the grapes are harvested only a small percentage of the adults will be found upon

the vines, although little foliage may have fallen from the vines by that time. During the entire month of October a general dispersion of the adults is in progress throughout the infested area. This dispersion is apparently quite aimless, the individuals settling down and collecting wherever sufficient shelter in the form of fallen leaves, sod lands, hedges, woodlots, and swales is adjacent to the vineyards. Large numbers of them probably never leave the vineyards, passing the winter under the protection afforded by fallen leaves, clumps of grass, weeds, and cover crops. After leaving the grapevines they

feed to some extent upon the still green grass, weeds, and cover crops, and become more or less active when disturbed during the warmer days of winter.

SPRING EMERGENCE OF ADULTS.

Early in May, as the days become warmer and plants commence to throw out new growth, the adults leave their winter protection and feed somewhat indiscriminately upon the new growth of almost any plant with



FIG. 4.—Grape leaf in early stages of attack by the grape leafhopper, showing the characteristic mottling of the upper surface. (Original.)

which they come in contact, showing some preference, however, for the foliage of bush fruits such as wild blackberries, cultivated raspberries, and strawberries. This promiscuous feeding terminates with the unfolding of the leaves of the grapevine and there is a general migration of the insect back to the foliage of the grapevine, this being the only plant upon which this particular species of leafhopper is known to reproduce.

The adult "hoppers" first attack the foliage or sprouts springing from the base of the vine or from canes near the lower wire of the trellis. When the adult insects are very numerous, sufficient injury

results to check the development of the foliage and to retard the growth of those new shoots which spring from the canes near the lower wire of the trellis. This early retardation of growth is more important than would at first appear, for it is highly desirable that these new shoots springing from the canes near the lower wire of the trellis should make a thrifty growth during the early part of the season, since it is from them that canes for bearing the next season's crop of fruit are selected. This feeding of the overwintering adult "hoppers" continues for several weeks; in fact, many of them may remain upon the vines until some of the new generation has matured.

THE EGG STAGE.

Egg laying by the overwintering females does not commence in the vineyards of the Lake Erie Valley until about June 1, after the adults have been feeding upon the vines for several weeks. The eggs are deposited on the underside of the leaves. They are tucked under the skin indiscriminately as to location on the leaf and are very difficult to locate on those varieties



FIG. 5.—Grape leaf showing final result of attack by the grape leafhopper; leaf withered and brown before the fruit is mature. (Original.)

possessing a heavy pubescence, as is the case with the Concord. The egg stage covers a period of about 10 days to 2 weeks. The period of egg deposition is obviously a long one, since newly emerged nymphs are present upon the foliage from the middle of June until late in October. Observations indicate, however, that the maximum deposition must occur during the last three weeks in June and the first week in July, since the period when there is a maximum number of nymphs upon the leaves is included in a period from the last week in June until about August 1, at which latter date many fully developed nymphs are making their final molt.

THE NYMPHAL STAGES.

The young "hoppers," or nymphs, commence to appear about the middle of June, and a close examination of the underside of infested leaves at this time is likely to reveal a number of recently hatched nymphs, at about the stage shown in figure 2, running actively over the surface. In hatching from the egg the young "hopper" has to force its way through the pubescence on the underside of the leaf, and in doing so appears as a minute, whitish object, which, when examined under a lens, is seen to possess a pair of red eyes. After a few minutes of laborious struggling it forces itself to the surface of the pubescence, where its legs and antennae spread and become disengaged and the tiny creature is ready to commence its destructive operations. This it does by thrusting its tiny beaklike mouthparts into the tissue of the leaf and extracting the juices. As the season advances it is not uncommon to find individual leaves supporting from 200 to 300 of these nymphs in the various stages of nymphal development.

As the nymph increases in size it casts or molts its old skin for a larger one. There are five of these molts before the nymph reaches the adult stage. The first four require a period of 5 days for each molt, and between the fourth and fifth molts there is a period of 12 days. Hence about a month is required in which to complete the nymphal period. Figure 3 represents a nymph after the fourth molt with fully developed wing pads.

The term "hopper" applied to this form of the insect is a misnomer and is likely to create an erroneous impression concerning the movements of the insect at this period of its life history. The nymphs do not hop or leap, as the term "hopper" would imply, and although they run about very actively on the underside of the leaf and sometimes a few of them may be seen running down the stem of the leaf and also upon its upper surface, it is doubtful if the journeys of more than a very small percentage of them extend beyond the confines of the leaf upon which the eggs from which they were hatched were deposited. This limited area of movement of the insect during this period of its life is exceedingly important from an economic point of view, since it admits of its destruction during the more rapid growing season of the vine and at a period when there is slight possibility of reinfestation of treated areas.

THE ADULT.

With the final molt and the full development and use of its wings the adult leafhopper becomes an extremely agile and active creature, leaping and darting rapidly from leaf to leaf at the slightest disturbance, being much more active during the warm weather than on cold, windy days, when it can be dislodged from its shelter under the

foliage only with considerable difficulty. It is in this stage, as mentioned in a previous paragraph, that the insect becomes disseminated over vineyard areas. Nevertheless, the spread of the adults does not become general until late in the season, when migration for the purpose of hibernation takes place. This feature of its movement was adequately and strikingly demonstrated in several vineyards where experimental work was carried on against the nymphs during the season of 1910. In no case was there a serious reinfestation of the thoroughly treated vines, although adjoining untreated rows were heavily infested throughout the entire season. Hence, we are led to the belief that widespread dissemination of this pest takes place largely during the fall migration, when the adults rise in the air and are carried by the winds, and, again, during the spring migration, when they leave their winter shelter and return to the vines. Thus the vineyardist who has been successful in destroying the nymphs during the summer need have little apprehension of reinfestation later in the season from adjacent infested and untreated vineyards.

REMEDIAL MEASURES.

In discussing the subject of remedial measures for the control of an insect pest, it is always highly desirable to take into consideration cultural and other operations involved in the production of the particular crop under treatment in order that the recommendation of methods of control which may conflict with the most desirable farm practice, or may be impracticable on a commercial scale, may be avoided. Modifications in vineyard or orchard management by the adoption of new methods may also seriously conflict with earlier recommendations which were quite feasible when first suggested. Thus, earlier writers have laid considerable stress upon the value of clean culture of vineyards and the gathering up of all trash and leaves in and bordering upon them as a means of greatly reducing the number of overwintering "hoppers." Unfortunately, however, this cleaning-up process is impracticable over large areas, and it not infrequently happens that adjacent rough lands which furnish winter protection outside the vineyards are not under the control of the owner of the vineyard. Furthermore, the practice of growing winter cover crops of clover, vetch, turnips, etc., in vineyards, a practice highly desirable both from the standpoint of increasing the fertility of the soil and preventing soil wash during the winter months, has become quite general throughout Erie County (see Pl. I. figs. 1 and 2). There is no doubt that cover crops tend to hold more of the hoppers in the vineyards than where clean culture is practiced. Yet many vineyardists are convinced that the ultimate advantage to the vine is so much in favor of the cover crop that they prefer to continue this practice, if possible, and look for some other

means of controlling the grape leafhopper, and are turning their attention toward a summer spray treatment as a means of control.

The active movements of the overwintering adult "hoppers" when feeding upon the new growth of vines in the early spring and the fact that they are somewhat protected by the wings (which, when the insect is at rest, form a rooflike covering over the softer parts of their body) (fig. 1), greatly lessen the efficiency of a contact spray, first, because of their rapid movements, and, second, because, even if hit by the spray, they are not destroyed unless it is of so great a strength that it would injure the tender new growth of the vine.

Another device for the destruction of these overwintering adults has been the use of shields smeared with some sticky substance. This method, however, is quite laborious, and is practicable only for small areas, and in the opinion of the writer is necessary only when the overwintering insects are very numerous and likely to work great injury to the new growth.

In view of the difficulty to be encountered in overcoming the overwintering adults, and confident that this pest can be controlled by a spray treatment applied during the nymphal stage, the experimental work of the bureau was confined entirely to a spray treatment against the nymphs.

These experiments were undertaken in portions of vineyards which had suffered from attacks of this pest for several years and in which it was becoming more destructive each year, and although the overwintering adults were quite numerous and their injury to the new shoots was much in evidence, no attempt was made to check them in any way.

SPRAY APPLICATIONS AGAINST THE NYMPHS.

From the middle of June, when the nymphs first commenced to appear, a close watch was kept on their development, the object being to determine approximately the date at which the maximum number of nymphs would be present upon the foliage before those earliest to hatch had developed wings and before serious injury to the foliage (evidenced by a yellow mottling of those leaves most heavily infested by the nymphs) had become apparent. During the summer of 1910 this date was about July 12. At this time a small number of the nymphs earliest to hatch had entered upon their last molt (fig. 3), and the number present upon the leaves in earlier stages of development was very large, indicating that about the maximum number of nymphs was now present upon the foliage.

The first spray application was made July 12, the substance used being blackleaf tobacco extract, a dark, almost viscid liquid containing $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent nicotine.

Since no data were at hand to indicate the minimum strength at which the solution would kill the nymphs it was necessary to spray



FIG. 1.—COVER CROP OF VETCH IN VINEYARD OF MR. JOHN HIGGINS, NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)



FIG. 2.—COVER CROP OF TURNIPS IN VINEYARD OF MOTTIER BROS., NORTH EAST, PA. VINEYARD BADLY INFESTED BY GRAPE LEAFHOPPER, WHICH WAS EFFECTIVELY TREATED WITH BLACKLEAF TOBACCO-EXTRACT SPRAY. (ORIGINAL.)

a few vines with different dilutions. Accordingly several vines were sprayed with the following dilutions:

TABLE 1.—*Dilutions of blackleaf tobacco extract as used in experiments against the grape leafhopper.*

Plat No.	Number of vines.	Strength of dilution.	Results.
1	4	1 gallon to 75 gallons water.....	All nymphs hit by spray were killed.
2	4	1 gallon to 100 gallons water.....	Do.
3	4	1 gallon to 125 gallons water.....	Do.
4	4	1 gallon to 150 gallons water.....	Do.
5	4	1 gallon to 200 gallons water.....	Do.
6	4	Clear water.....	No nymphs killed.

Blackleaf "40,"¹ another form of highly concentrated tobacco extract, was also used at a much greater dilution, as shown in Table II.

TABLE II.—*Dilutions of blackleaf "40" as used in experiments against the grape leafhopper.*

Plat No.	Number of vines.	Strength of dilution.	Results.
1	4	1 gallon to 1,000 gallons water.....	All nymphs hit by spray were killed.
2	4	1 gallon to 1,500 gallons water.....	Do.
3	4	1 gallon to 1,750 gallons water.....	Do.
4	4	1 gallon to 2,000 gallons water.....	All but fully developed nymphs were killed.
5	4	Clear water.....	No nymphs were killed.

All of the spray applications indicated above were made with a hand pump carrying a pressure of about 80 pounds. A short rod with a nozzle set at right angles attached to a 40-foot hose was used to apply the spray to the nymphs upon the underside of the leaves. Great care was taken to wet the underside of every leaf. The result of these applications could be determined within an hour after they were made, or as soon as the leaves became dry. Those nymphs that were not hit and killed by the spray would be found running about quite actively; thus the efficiency of the spray was quickly apparent. It was found that a larger amount and a greater strength of the tobacco liquid was required to kill the nearly full-grown nymphs, and also that only a very small number of the winged adults was destroyed by the spray.

After the killing strength of the blackleaf tobacco extract had been determined, several experiments covering areas of several acres each were undertaken in a number of vineyards. On the vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper about 6 acres of the worst infested portion of his vineyard was sprayed from July 14 to July 16, when the majority of the nymphs were small. Blackleaf tobacco extract was applied at a dilution of 1 gallon of the extract to 150 gallons of water. A traction sprayer was used and a pressure of from 75 to 125 pounds

¹ Containing 40 per cent of nicotine.

was carried. The cause of this great variation in pressure was due to the fact that it is impossible to wet the underside of all of the leaves if the machine is stopped at frequent intervals.

The spray was applied to the underside of the foliage by means of what is known in vineyard spraying operations as a "trailer"—that is, instead of delivering the spray to the foliage from nozzles attached to a fixed rod upon the spraying machine a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch hose from 20 to 40 feet long is attached to the discharge of the pump. To the free end of this lead of hose is connected a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch rod about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long carrying either one or two nozzles of the cyclone type set upward at right angles to the rod. This short rod is held by the operator and is thrust in among the leaves of the vine and quickly moved about and withdrawn, requiring rapid movements in order to cover the underside of all of the leaves and at the same time not waste much of the liquid. The operator must always bear in mind that the spray liquid must come in contact with each individual nymph that is to be destroyed. This is the only method known to us at present of making a liquid spray application effective. We have made several attempts to deliver the spray to the underside of the foliage by means of nozzles fixed to the machine but have achieved only partial success by that method.

By many vineyardists this "trailer" method of application has been considered slow and expensive. Yet, as worked out this season on the experimental plats of the Bureau of Entomology it has not proved more so than applications made for other vineyard pests.

The cost of the application on the vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper at North East, Pa., was as follows: Blackleaf tobacco extract at a dilution of 1 to 150 cost approximately one-half cent per gallon.

The area of vineyard covered per day was 3 acres, and the items of expense were as follows:

One man to operate spray rod.....	per day..	\$1.75
Team to haul sprayer.....	do.....	2.25
One boy to drive team.....	do.....	1.00
Cost of spray liquid for 3 acres.....	do.....	2.40
Total cost for 3 acres.....		7.40
Total cost per acre		2.47

A block of 11 acres of badly infested vineyard belonging to Mr. G. E. Pierce was sprayed July 14 to 16 with blackleaf extract, using 1 gallon of the extract to 100 gallons of water. The "trailer" method of application was employed as in the previous experiment. In this instance, however, two nozzles were used and about 200 gallons of liquid were applied per acre. This increase in the strength of the liquid and of the quantity employed raised the total cost of the application to \$3.75 per acre. A part of this increased cost of application, however, was occasioned by trouble with the water supply during



FIG. 1.—INJURY BY GRAPE LEAFHOPPER (*TYPHLOCYBA COMES*) TO UNSPRAYED VINES.
(ORIGINAL.)



FIG. 2.—PERFECT FOLIAGE OF SPRAYED VINES. VIEWS FROM EXPERIMENTAL PLATS
IN VINEYARD OF MR. H. H. HARPER, AT NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)

this spraying, and Mr. Pierce is confident that under favorable conditions the cost per acre could be materially reduced.

A portion of the vineyard on the farm of Mr. John Higgins which has been seriously infested by the grape leafhopper, to which he attributes the shrinkage of several thousand baskets of fruit during the past two or three seasons, was treated in the same manner as the vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper.

On three blocks, however, the strength was varied as follows: Blackleaf tobacco extract, 1 gallon to 75, to 100, and to 150 gallons of water. As far as could be observed the dilution to 150 gallons of water was as effective as that to 75 gallons. All of the applications mentioned above were made before any of the nymphs had completed the final molt, and all of them were highly effective in reducing the number of the nymphs to a point where their injury for the remainder of the season was very slight. On all of these treated blocks the foliage remained dark green and growth continued until quite late in the season, whereas in adjacent infested and unsprayed vineyards the foliage commenced to turn brown before the fruit was ready to pick. In fact, the sprayed and the unsprayed portions of these vineyards were readily distinguished within two or three weeks after the application was made, and the difference in the condition of the foliage became more marked as the season advanced.

Plate II shows photographs of vines taken in the experimental vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper. Figure 1 is an unsprayed vine, and shows the exposure of the fruit by loss of a part of the foliage and also the withered condition of the leaves still attached to the vines, as a result of grape leafhopper injury. Figure 2 shows the perfect condition of the foliage on a vine growing in the adjacent row which was sprayed with tobacco extract. There is just as much fruit on the vine shown in figure 2 as on the vine shown in figure 1, but owing to the perfect condition of the foliage it can not be seen. The injurious effect of this pest upon the crop yield is cumulative. As a result of several seasons of infestation the cane growth of the vine is stunted during the growing season, and the final outcome is a sickly vine producing small clusters of poorly ripened fruit.

The owners of all of these vineyards were satisfied with the results of these experiments, and are planning to treat their entire vineyards with the tobacco extract next season if the insect is present in them in injurious numbers.

As the season advanced toward August 1, vineyardists began to observe the serious nature of the injury wrought by this pest. Most of them were unprepared to treat it, however, since they had no spraying material on hand, and many of the nymphs were passing from the last molt and developing wings. Nevertheless it was possible to undertake another experiment on the vineyard of Mr. Charles

Mottier on August 3. At this date many of the nymphs had developed to adults and these were very active.

The blackleaf tobacco extract was used at a strength of 1 gallon to 100 gallons of water and applied in the same manner as in the previous experiments. Evidence of injury, namely, the yellowing of the infested foliage, was already noticeable. Shortly after the application was made, however, it was observed that the yellowing and browning of the foliage ceased on the sprayed portion, whereas on the untreated portion of the vineyard it increased, and by the end of September the difference in color and vigor of the foliage on the two blocks was very marked, although not so much so as in the blocks that were sprayed about the middle of July before any of the nymphs had attained full growth and developed wings. This indicates that the best results can be obtained by treating the nymphs before they commence to make too heavy a drain on the vines. An additional reason why the earlier application of the tobacco extract is desirable is that if it is applied earlier in the season, when the nymphs are small, a weaker dilution may be used. There are thus several advantages for the earlier application: First, the cost of the material is reduced; second, the drain on the foliage wrought by the large numbers of nymphs is checked; and, third, the possibility of tainting the berries of the fruit with the taste of tobacco—a condition that was slightly noticeable upon the fruit in the vineyard which received the latest treatment of the season—is avoided.

CONCLUSION.

For several years past injury by the grape leafhopper in the vineyards of the Lake Erie Valley has been confined to limited areas. Its increase and dissemination during the season of 1910, however, should be a warning to the vineyardist to be prepared to combat it during the coming season if the adults are at all numerous when the vines "leaf out" in the spring.

On account of the inability of the nymphs to escape from the underside of the grape leaves and because of the soft and unprotected condition of their bodies the nymphal period is the most vulnerable stage of the insect. Unfortunately this is the stage at which the insects are the least conspicuous to the casual observer. For this reason in vineyards where the adults are common in early spring an examination of the underside of the foliage should be made during the early part of July. If the nymphs are at all numerous a single *thorough* spray application of blackleaf tobacco extract applied to the underside of the leaves before wings are developed will reduce their numbers to such an extent that those remaining will neither seriously curtail the growth of the vine nor impair the quality of the fruit.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

LIFE HISTORY OF THE CODLING MOTH AND ITS CONTROL
ON PEARS IN CALIFORNIA.

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INTRODUCTION.

The codling moth (*Carpocapsa pomonella* L.) in California presents certain differences in its life history as compared with what is true for the East, principally a lengthening of the respective stages, due to a lower mean temperature during their period of development, especially in the first generation. As remedial measures can only be properly prescribed when based on a complete knowledge of the insect to be controlled, such observations as were possible on the life history of the insect in the vicinity of Walnut Creek were made during the seasons of 1909 and 1910. These, with field notes from other sections during 1910, are given in the following pages. For comparison, and also to further supplement the writer's own observations, some data from San Jose, Cal., are included, as secured by Mr. F. L. Young, of the Bureau of Entomology, working under the direction of Mr. P. R. Jones.

The pear crop of California suffers much from injury by the codling moth, and in view of the commercial importance of this crop, the losses represent in the aggregate a large item. The injury is especially important on green fruit destined for shipment to eastern markets, but even in the case of drying stock there is without doubt an important deterioration in quality. The results of experiments reported in this paper show that much may be done to lessen this damage by two or three timely applications of poison sprays, and it is hoped the recommendations may prove of value to California pear growers.

The writer desires to acknowledge the assistance of Mr. E. J. Hoddy, formerly of this bureau, in helping with part of the spraying experiments and in taking results. Also, to express thanks to

Mr. G. W. Whitman and Dr. F. W. Bancroft, of Concord, Cal., and Mr. G. W. Langdon, of Suisun, Cal., for their hearty cooperation in furnishing labor and material to help in the experiments.

LIFE-HISTORY NOTES ON THE CODLING MOTH IN CALIFORNIA.

OVERWINTERING LARVÆ.

Many codling-moth larvæ could be found in the orchards and around the packing sheds during the winter of 1908-9, but all observations go to show that a comparatively small percentage of the larvæ maturing in fruit the previous season went through the winter successfully. This may be partly explained by the fact that the pears are picked and taken to the sheds while a large percentage of the second-brood larvæ is still in the fruit. Many of these larvæ are destroyed or taken so far away that the adults fail to get back to the trees in spring. However, larvæ were frequently found under old burlap bands left on trees, and in the cracks and crevices and under rough bark.

SPRING BROOD OF PUPÆ.

The earliest date of actual pupation was not observed, but the first pupa was found on March 11, 1909. In removing the bands from seven pear trees in the Ygnacio Valley near Walnut Creek, 8 larvæ and 2 pupæ were found. The next day, March 12, 32 larvæ and 6 pupæ were found in the same orchard. March 22, another search showed 7 larvæ and 6 pupæ. On March 23, while looking through some boxes at a vinegar factory, 16 larvæ and 9 pupæ were found. These boxes had been kept under shelter during winter. One freshly shed pupal skin was found in the corner of a box, indicating that the first larva had perhaps pupated in February. On March 27, 14 pupæ and 1 pupal skin but no larvæ were found under bands.

The larvæ collected on these dates, together with a small sending from San Jose, were kept separately in vials, with bits of paper and cloth, for pupal records. Records kept at San Jose showed the first pupa on February 20. (See Table III.)

During February, 1910, about 300 larvæ secured from banded trees the previous season were put in vials for individual pupation records. Four of these larvæ had pupated by March 12. Of the 118 which produced adults in spring, 95 had pupated by March 31 and all had pupated April 10. The dates of pupation are given in Table II. Practically all larvæ under observation out of doors at the laboratory at Walnut Creek in 1909 and 1910 and San Jose in 1909 had pupated by the last of April, giving some two months during which larvæ transformed to pupæ. From the appearance of the first pupa, February 20, till the emergence of the last moths from overwintering

larvæ, in early June, gives some three months for the transformation period of all the overwintering larvæ to adults.

Length of pupal period.—The time spent in the pupal stage varies considerably for different individuals, but all of this brood in 1909 required a month or more, the average time being 39.54 days. (The period of emergence of moths lasts some two months, from the first to the last appearing individuals.) Individual records were started in the spring of 1909 for 128 larvæ, but moths emerged from only 68. These records are given in Table I.

TABLE I.—*Dates of pupation, duration of pupal period, and dates of emergence of moths of the spring brood from overwintering larvæ, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.
	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.	
			<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>
1.....	Mar. 11	Apr. 20	40	25.....	Mar. 27	May 6	40	49.....	Apr. 4	May 17	43
2.....	16	20	35	26.....	27	6	40	50.....	4	17	43
3.....	16	27	42	27.....	29	7	39	51.....	5	17	42
4.....	16	24	39	28.....	29	6	38	52.....	5	22	47
5.....	17	21	35	29.....	30	7	38	53.....	5	19	44
6.....	17	22	36	30.....	30	7	38	54.....	7	24	47
7.....	17	May 1	45	31.....	30	7	38	55.....	20	26	36
8.....	17	2	46	32.....	Apr. 1	6	35	56.....	21	26	35
9.....	18	11	54	33.....	1	7	36	57.....	20	25	35
10.....	18	2	45	34.....	1	8	37	58.....	20	27	37
11.....	18	1	44	35.....	1	9	38	59.....	22	29	37
12.....	18	3	46	36.....	2	9	37	60.....	22	24	32
13.....	19	4	46	37.....	2	9	37	61.....	22		
14.....	19	9	51	38.....	2	9	37	62.....	26	29	33
15.....	19	4	46	39.....	2	10	38	63.....	27	30	33
16.....	21	4	44	40.....	2	10	38	64.....	25	28	33
17.....	21	2	42	41.....	2	11	39	65.....	21	28	37
18.....	22	5	44	42.....	2	20	48	66.....	16	25	39
19.....	22	5	44	43.....	4	10	36	67.....	16	26	40
20.....	23	5	43	44.....	4	12	38	68.....	18	30	42
21.....	25	6	42	45.....	4	13	39				
22.....	25	4	40	46.....	4	13	39				
23.....	27	5	39	47.....	4	14	40				
24.....	27	6	40	48.....	4	17	43				
									Average.....		39.54
									Maximum.....		54.00
									Minimum.....		32.00

From some 300 larvæ put in vials for individual records in February, 1910, 118 completed pupation and produced adults. Records of these are given in Table II. As will be seen, the pupal period was shorter for the spring brood in 1910 than was the case in 1909. In 1910 the minimum was 21 days, with a maximum of 46, averaging 30.86 days for all individuals under observation, as against an average of 39.54 days in 1909.

TABLE II.—*Dates of pupation, duration of pupal period, and dates of emergence of moths of spring brood from overwintering larvæ, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.
	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.	
			<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>
1.....	Mar. 12	Apr. 17	36	42.....	Mar. 20	Apr. 18	29	82.....	Mar. 25	Apr. 27	33
2.....	12	17	36	43.....	20	22	33	83.....	26	26	31
3.....	12	16	35	44.....	20	30	41	84.....	26	28	33
4.....	13	18	36	45.....	20	20	31	85.....	27	30	34
5.....	13	18	36	46.....	20	20	31	86.....	28	30	33
6.....	13	17	35	47.....	20	24	35	87.....	28	30	33
7.....	14	14	32	48.....	21	May 1	41	88.....	28	May 3	36
8.....	14	16	34	49.....	21	Apr. 18	28	89.....	28	7	40
9.....	14	17	35	50.....	21	22	32	90.....	29	2	34
10.....	15	17	34	51.....	21	23	33	91.....	30	Apr. 30	31
11.....	15	17	34	52.....	21	24	34	92.....	31	May 4	34
12.....	15	14	30	53.....	21	24	34	93.....	31	9	39
13.....	16	18	33	54.....	21	21	31	94.....	31	12	42
14.....	16	18	33	55.....	21	24	34	95.....	31	3	33
15.....	16	16	31	56.....	21	20	30	96.....	Apr. 1	6	35
16.....	16	20	35	57.....	21	20	30	97.....	2	Apr. 24	22
17.....	17	16	30	58.....	21	21	33	98.....	2	27	25
18.....	17	21	35	59.....	21	23	33	100.....	2	30	28
19.....	17	15	29	60.....	21	22	32	101.....	2	28	26
20.....	17	17	31	61.....	21	18	28	102.....	2	May 3	31
21.....	17	May 2	46	62.....	22	22	31	103.....	2	Apr. 26	24
22.....	17	Apr. 21	35	63.....	22	22	31	104.....	2	May 3	31
23.....	17	20	34	64.....	22	24	33	105.....	4	6	32
24.....	17	16	30	65.....	22	22	31	106.....	5	9	34
25.....	18	18	31	66.....	22	24	33	107.....	6	Apr. 30	24
26.....	18	18	31	67.....	22	26	35	108.....	8	May 6	28
27.....	18	19	32	68.....	22	23	32	109.....	8	7	29
28.....	18	16	29	69.....	22	28	37	110.....	8	11	33
29.....	19	20	32	70.....	22	18	27	111.....	8	Apr. 29	21
30.....	19	18	30	71.....	22	21	30	112.....	9	30	21
31.....	19	16	28	72.....	22	20	29	113.....	9	May 14	35
32.....	19	22	34	73.....	22	22	31	114.....	9	10	31
33.....	19	17	29	74.....	22	22	31	115.....	9	6	27
34.....	19	17	28	75.....	22	23	32	116.....	9	6	27
35.....	19	24	36	76.....	22	22	31	117.....	10	5	25
36.....	19	16	28	77.....	22	20	29	118.....	10	7	27
37.....	19	16	28	78.....	24	23	30				
38.....	20	22	23	79.....	24	26	33				
39.....	20	21	32	80.....	24	27	34				
40.....	20	24	35	81.....	24	26	33				
41.....	20	21	32								
									Average.....		30.86
									Maximum.....		46.00
									Minimum.....		21.00

Table III gives records for 31 larvæ which pupated in vials out of doors at San Jose, Cal., in the spring of 1909.

TABLE III.—*Dates of pupation, duration of pupal period, and dates of emergence of moths of spring brood from overwintering larvæ, San Jose, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.
	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.	
			<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>
1.....	Feb. 20	Apr. 17	56	13.....	Mar. 11	Apr. 28	48	25.....	Mar. 9	Apr. 28	50
2.....	Mar. 5	26	52	14.....	4	26	53	26.....	24	28	35
3.....	29	May 3	35	15.....	13	May 1	49	27.....	24	28	35
4.....	Apr. 9	11	32	16.....	12	Apr. 29	48	28.....	29	28	30
5.....	Mar. 23	3	41	17.....	Apr. 6	May 10	34	29.....	Apr. 1	May 3	32
6.....	15	3	49	18.....	Mar. 8	Apr. 28	51	30.....	12	4	22
7.....	26	3	38	19.....	Apr. 1	May 3	32	31.....	12	17	35
8.....	27	3	37	20.....	1	3	32				
9.....	9	Apr. 26	48	21.....	1	3	32				
10.....	4	26	53	22.....	Mar. 29	3	35				
11.....	Apr. 1	May 1	30	23.....	9	Apr. 28	50				
12.....	Mar. 30	6	37	24.....	9	26	48				
									Average.....		40.61
									Maximum.....		56.00
									Minimum.....		22.00

SPRING BROOD OF MOTHS.

It is probable that the first adult appeared in 1909 about March 23. On this date an apparently freshly shed pupal skin was found, and another was found in the field on March 27. Bartlett pears were at this time just about in full bloom. The first moths were seen in the field on April 17. During spraying operations in a pear orchard three active moths were seen in the trees in the early forenoon. Others were seen on April 19, and on May 5 several were observed among trees in the corner of the orchard near the packing shed. The first moth appeared at the laboratory on April 9 from the lot of pupæ collected in the field March 11 to 22. These pupæ were kept in glass jars out of doors, but some were injured, and only three moths emerged, namely, on April 9, 13, and 14. The individual records show moths emerging from April 17 to May 30 (detailed in Tables I, II, and III). This material was kept in jars out of doors in the shade.

On May 6, 1909, several bands which had been on trees over winter were removed, and these, as also the trunks of the trees, examined closely. Thirty-six shed pupal skins were found, but no larvæ or pupæ, indicating that most of the moths had emerged by this time.

In the spring of 1910 moths emerged in numbers somewhat earlier than in 1909. Individuals were seen in the orchard April 9, during spraying, although no moths emerged at the laboratory until April 14. At Suisun, Cal., April 5, while examining the trunks of trees for the presence of larvæ and pupæ, many apparently freshly shed pupal skins were found on the bark. The next day, April 6, at Courtland, Sacramento County, Cal., shed pupal skins were even more apparent in comparison with the number of larvæ and pupæ found on the trees. At this time in the two last-mentioned places the petals had been off the trees for some days, and it is generally conceded that these sections are a week or ten days earlier than in the vicinity of Walnut Creek. Table IV shows the emergence of moths from overwintering larvæ at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909-10.

TABLE IV.—*Emergence of moths from overwintering larvæ, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909 and 1910.*

Date.	Number of moths emerging—		Date.	Number of moths emerging—		Date.	Number of moths emerging—		Date.	Number of moths emerging—	
	1909	1910		1909	1910		1909	1910		1909	1910
Apr. 14...	0	2	Apr. 26...	0	5	May 8...	1	0	May 20...	1	0
15...	0	1	27...	1	3	9...	5	2	21...	0	0
16...	0	9	28...	0	3	10...	3	1	22...	1	0
17...	0	9	29...	0	1	11...	2	1	23...	0	0
18...	0	10	30...	0	8	12...	1	1	24...	2	0
19...	0	1	May 1...	2	0	13...	2	0	25...	2	0
20...	2	9	2...	3	3	14...	1	1	26...	3	0
21...	1	7	3...	1	4	15...	0	0	27...	1	0
22...	1	11	4...	4	1	16...	0	0	28...	2	0
23...	0	5	5...	4	1	17...	4	0	29...	2	0
24...	1	9	6...	6	5	18...	0	0	30...	2	0
25...	0	0	7...	5	3	19...	1	0	31...	0	0

Table V gives the emergence of moths from a quantity of overwintering material kept at San Jose, Cal. The emergence record is shown graphically in figure 6.

TABLE V.—*Emergence of moths of the spring brood, San Jose, Cal., 1909, from overwintering larvæ collected on banded apple trees.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.
Apr. 27.....	5	May 4.....	30	May 10.....	47	May 15.....	24
28.....	1	5.....	36	11.....	11	16.....	23
30.....	9	7.....	34	12.....	20	17.....	24
May 1.....	36	8.....	23	13.....	10		
2.....	34	9.....	20	14.....	14	Total....	426
3.....	25						

THE FIRST GENERATION.

FIRST-BROOD EGGS.

Time of oviposition.—No eggs were laid in breeding cages in 1909 until May 7, but numerous eggs were found in the orchard on May 5,

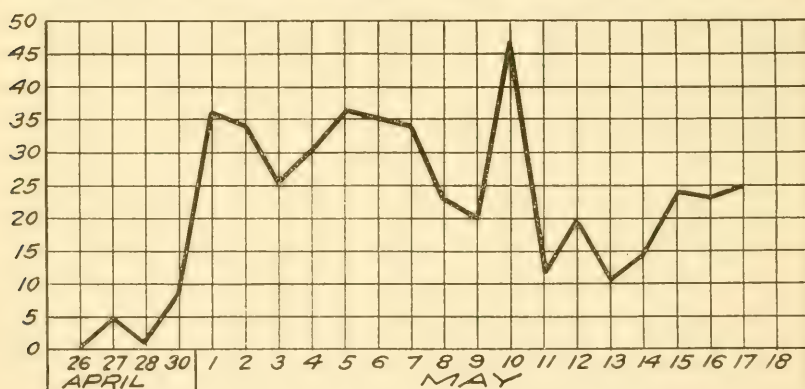


FIG. 6.—Weekly emergence of codling moths from overwintered material at San Jose, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

18 of which were collected, mostly showing black heads of larvæ. These were carried to the laboratory and kept out of doors, the first hatching May 7; 14 more had hatched by May 15; the others failed to hatch. On May 11 eggs were numerous on the fruit and foliage in the field, and 8 recently hatched larvæ were found on two trees near the packing shed. As the average period of incubation was about 21 days at this time, the approximate date for first oviposition in the field would be April 15. Since practically all moths in the field had emerged by May 6, it is not probable that any eggs were deposited in the field after May 15. The last eggs were secured in cages at the laboratory on May 12. Although many moths emerged after this date in the glass jars, very few were alive at any one time.

Corresponding with the time of emergence of moths, eggs were deposited earlier in 1910 than was the case in 1909. On April 25 at

Walnut Creek, three eggs were found on foliage in the field, and on May 2 eggs were numerous throughout the valley. At Suisun, Cal., larvæ were hatching April 29, and on May 3 young larvæ were quite numerous in some of the warmer sections of Suisun Valley, indicating that eggs were deposited in numbers some two to three weeks before, that is, from the 12th to the 20th of April.

Incubation period.—One noticeable difference between the life history of the codling moth in California and in the country east of the Rocky Mountains is the increased length of time required for incubation of the first-brood eggs. As a rule there is considerable cool weather, especially at night, during the months of April and May. This was especially noticeable in the vicinity of Walnut Creek in 1909. The time required for incubation varied from 17 to 22 days, averaging 20.05 days for the individuals under observation. The individual record for 56 eggs, deposited from May 8 to 11, are given in Table VI.

In the spring of 1910 the period of incubation was not observed individually for many eggs, but all indications were that the incubation period varied from a minimum of 15 days to a maximum of over 30 days, with the majority requiring about 25 days.

TABLE VI.—*Life cycle of the first generation, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—					Days for—				
	Egg deposition (night).	Hatching.	Larva leaving fruit.	Pupation.	Emergence of moths.	Incubation.	Feeding of larva.	Making of cocoon.	Pupal period.	Total life cycle.
1.....	May 8	May 29				21				
2.....	8	29				21				
3.....	8	28				20				
4.....	8	28				20				
5.....	8	28				20				
6.....	8	28	June 24	July 1	July 24	20	27	7	23	77
7.....	8	28	27			20	30			
8.....	8	28	29	4	25	20	32	5	21	78
9.....	8	29	29	5	23	21	31	6	18	76
10.....	8	28				20				
11.....	8	29	24	2	18	21	26	8	16	71
12.....	8	29	24			21	26			
13.....	8	29	29			21	31			
14.....	8	29				21				
15.....	8	28	24			20	27			
16.....	8	30	24	June 30		22	25	6		
17.....	8	30	23	30		22	24	7		
18.....	8	30				22				
19.....	8	26				18				
20.....	8	26				18				
21.....	8	26	23	30	18	18	28	7	18	71
22.....	9	27				18				
23.....	9	27				18				
24.....	9	27	30			18	34			
25.....	9	28	29	July 6	21	19	32	7	15	78
26.....	9	28				19				
27.....	9	29	July 9			20	41			
28.....	9	27				18				
29.....	9	27				18				
30.....	9	27				18				
31.....	9	27	June 26	5	21	18	30	9	16	75
32.....	9	30				21				
33.....	9	30				21				
34.....	9	29	21			20	26			
35.....	9									
36.....	9	30	24	5	21	21	25	11	16	73

TABLE VI.—*Life cycle of the first generation, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909—Continued.*

Individual No.	Date of—					Days for—				
	Egg deposition (night).	Hatching.	Larva leaving fruit.	Pupation.	Emergence of moths.	Incubation.	Feeding of larva.	Making of cocoon.	Pupal period.	Total life cycle.
37.....	May 9	May 30	July 1	July 6	July 25	21	32	5	19	77
38.....	9	30	2	6	25	21	33	4	19	77
39.....	9	30	29			21	30			
40.....	9					21				
41.....	9	30				21				
42.....	9	30	25			21	26			
43.....	9	30				21				
44.....	9	29	27		19	20	29			
45.....	9	29	24			20	26			
46.....	9	30	28			21	29			
47.....	9	30				21				
48.....	9	30	1			21	32			
49.....	9	30				21				
50.....	9	30	11			21	42			
51.....	9	30				21				
52.....	9	30				21				
53.....	9	30	June 28	6	22	21	29	8	16	74
54.....	10	29				19				
55.....	10	29	30			19	32			
56.....	10	27	30	6	20	17	34	6	14	71

SUMMARY.

Observations.	Days for—				
	Incubation.	Feeding of larva.	Making of cocoon.	Pupal period.	Total life cycle.
Average.....	20.05	29.97	6.85	17.58	74.25
Maximum.....	22.00	42.00	11.00	23.00	78.00
Minimum.....	17.00	24.00	4.00	14.00	71.00

FIRST-BROOD LARVÆ.

Time of hatching.—The first larvæ under observation in 1909 hatched May 7 from eggs brought in from the field. On May 11, 8 recently hatched larvæ were found in the orchard. On this same date, May 11, 1910, young larvæ were quite numerous in the field. At Suisun, Cal., in 1910, the first larva was found April 29, and recently hatched larvæ were quite numerous by May 3. Very young larvæ were found continuously until the 1st of June. Larvæ at laboratory hatched May 26 to 30, and it is very likely that all first-brood eggs in the field had hatched and all larvæ were in fruit by this time.

Development of larvæ in fruit.—Of the larvæ hatching under observation in 1909, only 29 reached full development in the fruit, requiring from 25 to 42 days. The individual records are given in Table VI. The first larva to leave the fruit in the field was not observed, but on June 5 three newly formed pupæ and 20 full-grown larvæ were found under bands on 21 pear trees, and 4 pupæ and 28

full-grown larvæ were found under bands on 10 apple trees. The time from leaving fruit to pupation for this brood, averaging $7\frac{1}{4}$ days, would indicate that the first full-grown larvæ left fruit in late May. Band records and data obtained by bringing in quantities of wormy fruit picked from trees in May showed a maximum number of first-brood larvæ leaving fruit June 14 to 26. However, later-maturing larvæ of this brood left fruit as late as July 21.

In the summer of 1910 many full-grown larvæ had left the fruit prior to the 1st of June. At Walnut Creek on June 1, 4 pupæ and 248 larvæ were taken from the bands on 11 apple trees, and at Suisun on June 3, 10 pupæ and 45 larvæ were taken from bands on 15 pear trees.

Larval life in cocoon.—The time spent from leaving fruit to pupating varied from 3 to 23 days, with an average of $7\frac{1}{4}$ days. These records were made from 165 larvæ which left fruit from June 7 to July 21 and kept in large shell vials out-of-doors. The records for 110 individuals will be seen in Table VII. All larvæ were put in vials with bits of paper and cloth, and the vials turned upside down on a glass plate for a few days. The larvæ usually "cocooned" within 24 hours after leaving the fruit and the records show the normal time. After the cocoon had been made the vials were placed open end up and covered with cheesecloth.

FIRST-BROOD PUPÆ.

Time of pupation.—The first pupæ were found in the field June 5, 1909, when a total of 7 were taken with 49 larvæ under bands from 21 pear and 10 apple trees. In 1910 pupæ were found June 1 and were plentiful in the vicinity of Suisun and Walnut Creek by June 5. At the laboratory the first larva pupated June 12, which had left fruit on June 7. The maximum number of pupæ from material collected under bands and larvæ leaving fruit at the laboratory occurred from June 20 to 30.

Length of pupal period.—Records kept out-of-doors for 165 individuals gave a minimum of 10 days and a maximum of 27 days with an average of $16\frac{1}{2}$ days for the time spent in the pupal stage. The records for 110 individuals will be found in Table VII.

The total time from leaving fruit to the emergence of adults varied from 20 to 47 days, averaging 25.69 days for the individuals under observation.

TABLE VII.—*Length of time as larva in cocoon, length of pupal stage, and total time spent from leaving fruit to emergence of adult, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—			Days for—		
	Larva leaving the fruit.	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence of moth.	Making of cocoon	Pupal period.	Total period in cocoon.
1.	June 7	June 14	July 11			34
2.	8	14	4	6	20	26
3.	9	17	6	8	19	27
4.	9	20	8	11	18	29
5.	10	14	4	4	20	24
6.	11	14	6	3	22	25
7.	12		29			47
8.	11	22	11	11	19	30
9.	10	22	11	12	19	31
10.	10	15	7	5	22	27
11.	10	19	5	9	16	25
12.	10	20	7	10	17	27
13.	10	17	5	7	18	25
14.	11	24	17	13	23	36
15.	11	23	10	12	17	29
16.	11	20	8	9	18	27
17.	11		20			39
18.	11	21	8	10	17	27
19.	12	20	6	8	16	24
20.	12	20	8	8	18	26
21.	12	23	8	11	15	26
22.	12	20	7	8	17	25
23.	12	15	4	3	19	22
24.	12	23	8	11	15	26
25.	12		20			38
26.	12	20	7	8	17	25
27.	12	21	7	9	16	25
28.	12	20	7	8	17	25
29.	12	21	11	9	20	29
30.	12	19	6	7	17	24
31.	12	16	7	4	21	25
32.	12	22	7	10	15	25
33.	12	19	5	7	16	23
34.	12	20	6	8	16	24
35.	12	20	6	8	16	24
36.	12	21	8	9	17	26
37.	12	19	5	7	16	23
38.	12	21	7	9	16	25
39.	12	20	6	8	16	24
40.	12	18	5	6	17	23
41.	12	20	6	8	16	24
42.	12	20	7	8	17	25
43.	12	21	7	9	16	25
44.	12	20	7	8	17	25
45.	11	16	4	5	18	23
46.	11	4	19	23	15	38
47.	11	19	5	8	16	24
48.	11	21	11	10	20	30
49.	11	20	7	9	17	26
50.	11	20	6	9	16	25
51.	11	20	6	9	16	25
52.	11	21	7	10	16	26
53.	14	23	11	9	18	27
54.	14	22	11	8	19	27
55.	14	24	11	10	17	27
56.	14	24	11	10	17	27
57.	14	24	11	10	17	27
58.	15	23	11	8	18	26
59.	15	26	19	11	23	34
60.	15	24	11	9	17	26
61.	15	24	11	9	17	26
62.	15	24	10	9	16	25
63.	16	23	10	7	17	24
64.	16	24	12	8	18	26
65.	17	24	12	7	18	25
66.	18	26	23	8	27	35
67.	20	27	13	7	16	23
68.	20	24	12	4	18	22
69.	20	30	20	10	20	30
70.	20	28	16	8	18	26
71.	20	24	16	4	22	26
72.	20	23	10	3	17	20
73.	20	23	11	3	18	21
74.	20	24	10	4	16	20
75.	20	24	12	4	18	22
76.	20	28	11	8	13	21
77.	20	26	11	6	15	21
78.	17	23	11	6	18	24

TABLE VII.—Length of time as larva in cocoon, length of pupal stage, and total time spent from leaving fruit to emergence of adult, Walnut Creek, Cal.—Continued.

Individual No.	Date of—			Days for—		
	Larva leaving the fruit.	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence of moth.	Making of cocoon.	Pupal period.	Total period in cocoon.
79.....	June 18	June 24	July 13	6	19	25
80.....	19	24	11	5	17	22
81.....	19	27	13	8	16	24
82.....	19	24	10	5	16	21
83.....	19	24	10	5	16	21
84.....	19	29	13	10	14	24
85.....	21	29	13	8	14	22
86.....	21	29	13	8	14	22
87.....	21	30	15	9	15	24
88.....	21	28	13	7	15	22
89.....	21	29	13	8	14	22
90.....	21	29	20	8	21	29
91.....	21	28	13	7	15	25
92.....	21	29	16	8	17	25
93.....	21	29	12	8	13	21
94.....	21	29	12	8	13	21
95.....	24	29	29	5	30	35
96.....	24	30	21	6	21	27
97.....	24	30	21	6	21	27
98.....	24	29	20	5	21	26
99.....	24	30	16	6	16	22
100.....	24	July 1	16	7	15	22
101.....	24	2	18	8	16	24
102.....	24	2	16	8	14	22
103.....	24	2	16	8	14	22
104.....	24	2	20	8	18	26
105.....	26	3	20	7	17	24
106.....	26	1	16	5	15	20
107.....	26	1	16	5	15	20
108.....	26	2	21	6	19	25
109.....	26	4	21	8	17	25
110.....	26	2	22	6	20	26

Total period from leaving of fruit by larva to emergence of moth:	Days.
Average.....	25.69
Maximum.....	47.00
Minimum.....	20.06

SUMMARY.

Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.	Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.	Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.	Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.
<i>Days.</i>		<i>Days.</i>		<i>Days.</i>		<i>Days.</i>	
20	2	25	21	30	3	36	1
21	9	26	16	31	1	38	2
22	13	27	12	34	2	39	1
23	5	29	4	35	2	47	1
24	15						

FIRST-BROOD MOTHS.

Moths began to emerge June 17 from larvæ and pupæ collected under bands June 5, reaching a maximum emergence some two weeks later, July 4 to 15. Eggs were plentiful on fruit and foliage of unsprayed trees July 7, indicating that many moths were out previous to that time. The first moths from larvæ maturing in wormy fruit brought into the laboratory emerged June 22, but comparatively few emerged from this time until early July. June 28 to 30 many recently shed pupal skins were found under some old burlap bands and in cracks and crevices of bark on unsprayed trees.

LIFE CYCLE OF THE FIRST GENERATION.

From the earliest appearing eggs in spring, about April 15, to the first appearing moths, June 17, gives some 63 days as the approximate length of the life cycle of the first generation. The laboratory records for individuals kept in breeding cages give a life cycle of 71 to 78 days. This, however, is based on only 12 individuals, which completed the cycle, and are recorded in Table VI. Careful observation indicates the length of time of the first generation to be from 60 to 70 days.

THE SECOND GENERATION.

SECOND-BROOD EGGS.

Time of oviposition.—A number of moths which emerged at the laboratory in late June and early July were put in rearing cages containing small branches of fruit and leaves and also fruit juices and sugar for food. The first eggs were deposited July 3. Some of the moths died before depositing eggs. On June 28, 1909, while looking after spraying operations in the field, frequent searches were made in the unsprayed block, but no eggs were found. During another search on July 7 among these trees many eggs were found and 5 larvæ just hatched, none of which had entered fruit, were found during the forenoon. Eggs were being deposited in large numbers in rearing cages July 8 to 10.

Incubation period.—The time required for incubation was less than half that required for the first-brood eggs. In cages this varied from $7\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ days, and averaged $8\frac{1}{4}$ days. The weather at this time was usually warm throughout the day with comparatively cool nights. In Table VIII are recorded incubation periods for several groups of eggs deposited between July 3 and 29. It will be noticed that eggs deposited July 10, 11, 26, and 28 required shorter time for incubation than others. Both of these periods were followed by 3 to 4 days of very warm weather.

TABLE VIII.—Incubation periods of second-brood eggs, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.

Observation No.	Number of eggs.	Date of—		Period of incubation.	Observation No.	Number of eggs.	Date of—		Period of incubation.
		Egg deposition (night).	Hatching of eggs.				Egg deposition (night).	Hatching of eggs.	
				Days.					Days.
1.....	3	July 3	July 12	8	10.....	45	July 15	July 24	8
2.....	4	6	16	9	11.....	35	16	25	8
3.....	4	7	16	8	12.....	20	17	26	8
4.....	10	7	16	8	13.....	12	20	29	8
5.....	15	8	17	8	14.....	70	24	Aug. 2	8
6.....	19	10	18	7	15.....	75	26	Aug. 3	7
7.....	15	11	19	7	16.....	60	28	5	7
8.....	14	12	22	9	17.....	40	29	6	8
9.....	11	13	23	9	18.....	9	Aug. 1	12	10

Incubation period:

Average.....	8.05
Maximum.....	10.00
Minimum.....	7.00

SECOND-BROOD LARVÆ.

Time of hatching.—July 12 was the date of first hatching of larvæ at the laboratory. These were from eggs deposited the night of July 3. As several adults had emerged and died previous to this date, it was not the actual beginning of the egg-laying period. Second-brood larvæ were hatching in numbers July 18 to 20.

On July 7 careful search in the field showed 5 very young larvæ. From July 10 to 12 second-brood larvæ were plentiful; from July 15 to 18 they were numerous, and by this time their work was showing a great deal on the unsprayed trees. Occasionally 3 and 4 entrance holes were found in a single pear.

Development of larvæ in relation to fruit.—The first picking of pears in the orchard where the spraying experiment was carried out in 1909 began July 15 and lasted 5 days. During this time young larvæ were hatching and entering the fruit in numbers in the unsprayed block, so that even the earliest first picking of fruit did not wholly escape the second-brood larvæ. In 1910 many second-brood larvæ were in the fruit before the first picking. The second and third pickings, coming later, are worse injured. The third or last picking receives practically the full force of the second-brood larvæ. In many orchards this picking will run 70 per cent wormy. The third picking of pears on the unsprayed block in 1909 showed an average of 75 per cent wormy, while in 1910 practically all of the pears left on the trees in the check blocks were wormy.

Life of larvæ in fruit.—The period covered by the life of the larvæ in the fruit was not positively determined for a very large number of second-brood larvæ. The harvesting of the fruit takes a large percentage of the larvæ to the packing shed before they reach full development.

At the laboratory several hundred individual records were started, but the quick rotting of some of the fruit during a short absence destroyed part of the records. The first larvæ left the fruit August 6, 1909, at the laboratory, but in the field comparatively few larvæ as a rule reach their full development before the fruit is all harvested, which is about the middle of August. In the summer of 1910 the first full-grown larvæ of the second brood were found at Suisun July 26, and at Walnut Creek on August 1. At this time practically all pears around Suisun and about two-thirds of the crop in the vicinity of Walnut Creek had been harvested.

Records for 63 individuals which went through in sound or nearly sound fruit out-of-doors at the laboratory in 1909 are given in Table IX. As may be seen, this gives about 26 days for the period of the larvæ in the fruit.

TABLE IX.—Feeding periods of second-brood larvæ in pears, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.

Individual No.	Date of—		Period of feed-ing.	Indi-vid-ual No.	Date of—		Period of feed-ing.	Indi-vid-ual No.	Date of—		Period of feed-ing.
	Hatch-ing.	Leaving the fruit.			Hatch-ing.	Leaving the fruit.			Hatch-ing.	Leaving the fruit.	
			Days.				Days.				Days.
1...	July 12	Aug. 18	37	22...	July 25	Aug. 26	32	43...	Aug. 2	Aug. 20	18
2a...	12	14	33	23a...	26	20	25	44...	2	20	18
3...	12	19	38	24...	26	20	25	45...	2	22	20
4a...	16	13	28	25...	26	23	28	46...	2	27	25
5a...	16	21	36	26...	26	22	27	47...	2	29	27
6a...	16	14	29	27...	26	20	25	48...	2	26	24
7a...	16	16	31	28...	26	21	26	49...	2	26	24
8a...	16	21	36	29...	28	18	21	50...	2	29	27
9a...	24	19	26	30...	28	21	24	51...	3	27	24
10...	24	20	27	31...	29	25	27	52...	3	21	18
11a...	24	19	26	32...	29	21	23	53...	3	29	26
12...	24	21	28	33...	29	28	30	54...	3	31	28
13...	24	27	34	34...	29	22	24	55...	3	26	23
14...	24	21	28	35...	29	19	21	56...	3	27	24
15...	24	28	35	36...	29	23	25	57...	4	25	21
16...	25	18	24	37...	29	24	26	58...	4	28	24
17a...	25	20	26	38...	29	Sept. 8	41	59...	4	31	27
18...	25	18	24	39...	29	Aug. 12	14	60...	6	Sept. 1	26
19...	25	26	32	40...	29	13	15	61...	6	Aug. 29	23
20...	25	21	27	41...	Aug. 2	26	24	62...	6	31	25
21...	25	27	33	42...	2	24	22	63...	6	31	25

a Pupated and moth emerged in September.

Feeding period:	Days.
Average.....	26.34
Maximum.....	41.00
Minimum.....	14.00

Overwintering larvæ.—The first larvæ not pupating but going into winter cocoons in 1909 were taken from bands July 17. Of 78 larvæ taken on this date, 38 pupated and adults emerged, 28 died, and 20 went through the winter as larvæ. Of 196 larvæ and pupæ collected under bands on June 28, 1910, 5 did not pupate but wintered as larvæ in cocoons. After this date the percentage of overwintering larvæ increased. However, some adults emerged as late as September 18. With the development of the second brood there was a marked increase in the number of overwintering larvæ. Of some 95 to 100 larvæ developing in fruit out-of-doors at the laboratory, only 9 pupated. These were Nos. 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 17, and 23 in Table IX. Adults emerged 17 to 36 days after leaving fruit. This would give some 6 to 7 weeks for the life of the individuals of the second generation.

REVIEW OF LIFE HISTORY FOR THE YEARS 1909 AND 1910.

There are practically two full broods of larvæ each year in the interior counties of California. It is not easy to distinguish definitely between the two generations by field observations alone, and to know just when all the first-brood larvæ are in the fruit, although there is a period of some weeks each summer during which very few eggs are laid. Taking into consideration the difference in time required for development of eggs and larvæ, and the fact that the pears are picked before very many of the second-brood larvæ leave the fruit, it is difficult to determine the division of generations by band records. Some growers report that young larvæ are hatching and entering fruit

almost continuously from April to August, inclusive, and do not recognize the broods at all. However, it is well to know when these broods appear, and what is meant by the term "brood."

The overwintering larvæ pupate in spring; the moths emerging from these in late April and during May deposit eggs which hatch into the first-brood worms. This brood is usually comparatively small and the injury not severe. Some growers are inclined to overlook the importance of this brood, and many fail to notice any worms until the second brood begins to show just prior to first picking.

The second is by far the more destructive of the two broods, both by reason of its numbers and because of the stage of the fruit when it appears. The first-brood worms reach their development usually during the months of May and June, pupate, and adults emerge and begin depositing eggs some one or two weeks before the first picking of pears commences. Growers can tell very well when the first of the second-brood worms will begin

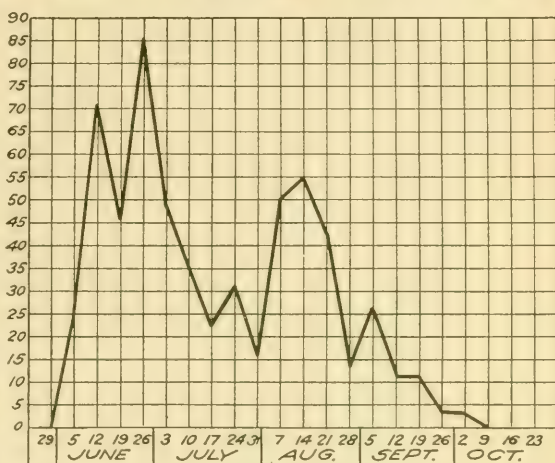


FIG. 7.—Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

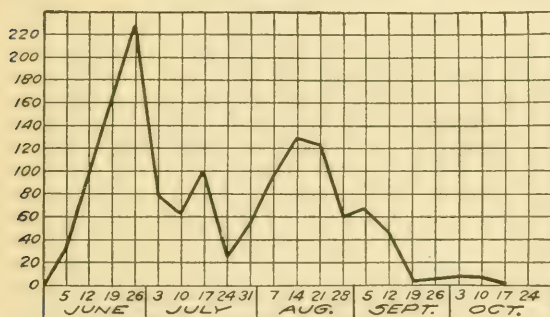


FIG. 8.—Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

to appear by the use of burlap bands put on the trees in May. Examine these once a week and when the first larvæ are caught under them they may be put into glass jars or tumblers with bits of paper or rags and kept under normal out-of-doors conditions. When the first moths appear it will then be some two weeks before eggs are hatching.

BAND RECORDS.

Some idea of the development of the first-brood larvæ and the time of leaving fruit may be gained from Tables X and XI, which are the band records at Walnut Creek for 1909. (See also figs. 7 and 8, which show this data in diagrammatic form.)

TABLE X.—*Band records from 21 Bartlett pear trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 5.....	24	July 17.....	22	Aug. 28.....	13	Oct. 9.....	0
12.....	71	24.....	31	Sept. 5.....	26		
19.....	45	31.....	15	12.....	11	Total..	592
26.....	85	Aug. 7.....	50	19.....	11		
July 3.....	49	14.....	55	26.....	3		
10.....	36	21.....	42	Oct. 2.....	3		

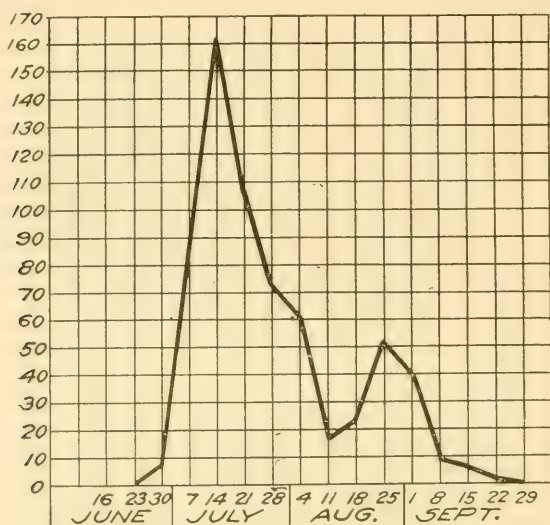


FIG. 9.—Weekly emergence of codling moths from material collected from banded apple and pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

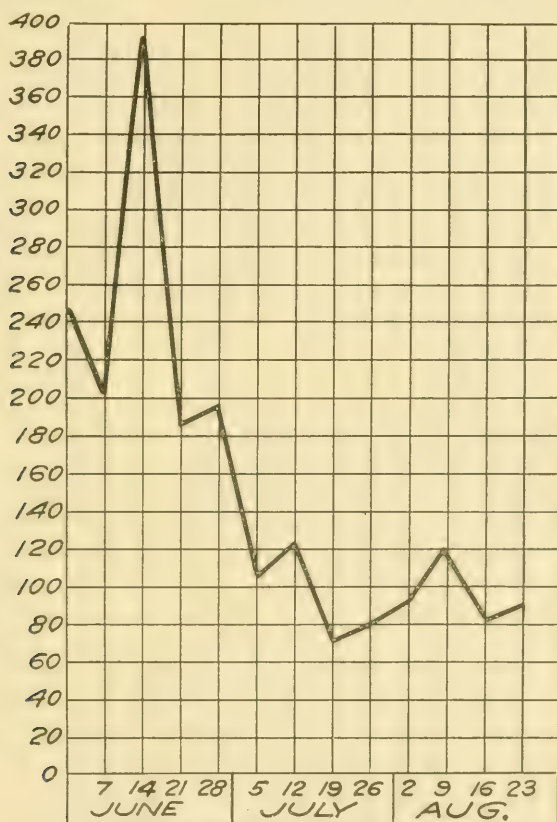
TABLE XI.—*Band records from 10 apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 5.....	32	July 17.....	99	Aug. 28.....	60	Oct. 10.....	5
12.....	98	24.....	25	Sept. 5.....	65		
19.....	164	31.....	56	12.....	43	Total..	1,371
26.....	223	Aug. 7.....	95	19.....	2		
July 3.....	79	14.....	128	26.....	3		
10.....	63	21.....	125	Oct. 3.....	6		

All larvæ and pupæ collected in making the two band records in 1909 were put together each week and kept in jars for the emergence of adults. The maximum emergence came July 8 to 14. The records are given in Table XII. (See also fig. 9.)

TABLE XII.—*Emergence of moths from material collected under bands on pear and apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.
June 23.....	3	July 21.....	114	Aug. 18.....	24	Sept. 15.....	6
30.....	7	28.....	73	25.....	52	22.....	1
July 7.....	91	Aug. 4.....	63	Sept. 1.....	40		
14.....	161	11.....	18	8.....	10	Total..	663

FIG. 10.—Band records from 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.
(Original.)TABLE XIII.—*Band records from 15 Bartlett pear trees, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 3.....	55	July 1.....	81	July 22.....	28	Aug. 12.....	38
10.....	58	8.....	37	29.....	50		
17.....	68	15.....	48	Aug. 5.....	68	Total..	618
24.....	84						

Table XIV, showing the band record from 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek in 1910, is illustrated diagrammatically in figure 10; and Table XIII, showing band records taken from 15 Bartlett pear trees at Suisun, Cal., in 1910, is illustrated in figure 11.

TABLE XIV.—*Band records from 11 apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 1.....	252	June 28.....	196	July 26.....	80	Aug. 23.....	88
7.....	200	July 5.....	105	Aug. 2.....	93		
14.....	394	12.....	125	9.....	120	Total..	1,991
21.....	185	19.....	71	16.....	82		

It will be seen (fig. 10) that the maximum number of larvæ and pupæ

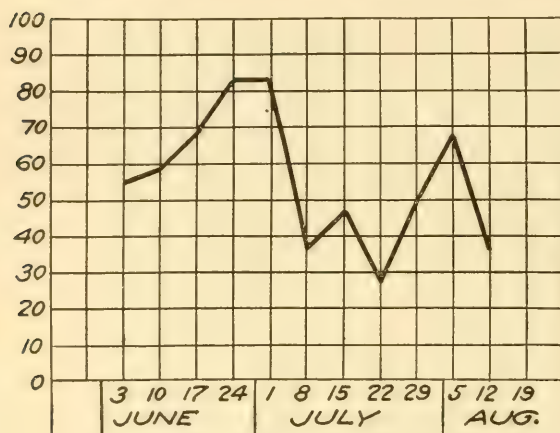


FIG. 11.—Band records from 15 Bartlett pear trees at Suisun, Cal., 1910.
(Original.)

was collected on June 14, 1910, as against June 26, 1909 (figs. 7 and 8), showing that the greatest number of larvæ and pupæ was present nearly two weeks earlier in 1910 than in 1909.

Tables XV and XVI show emergence of moths from material collected under bands at Walnut Creek and Suisun in the summer of 1910.

Both tables are illustrated diagrammatically in figures 12 and 13.

TABLE XV.—*Weekly record of emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 11 apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.
June 22.....	3	July 20.....	65	Aug. 10.....	36	Aug. 31.....	50
29.....	175	27.....	84	17.....	36	Sept. 7.....	15
July 6.....	133	Aug. 3.....	30	24.....	76	14.....	4
13.....	228						

TABLE XVI.—*Weekly record of emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 15 Bartlett pear trees, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.
June 19.....	1	July 10.....	74	July 31.....	7	Aug. 21.....	14
26.....	13	17.....	26	Aug. 7.....	9	28.....	2
July 3.....	25	24.....	18	14.....	6	Sept. 4.....	2

There is a noticeable difference in the dates of development of the first-brood larvæ and the emergence of moths from this brood in the

interior counties and in the coast counties. The tables giving the band records and emergence of moths for Walnut Creek and Suisun sections show the maximum emergence of moths to be about three weeks earlier than the maximum emergence at San Jose. Extended field observations covering the seasons of 1909-10 confirm these laboratory records. Many first-brood larvæ were hatching and entering fruit in early July in Santa Clara, Santa Cruz, and Monterey and in Mendocino and Humboldt Counties along the coast, while all this brood was in the fruit by the 1st of June in the adjoining interior counties.

Table XVII, giving the band record, and Table XVIII, giving the record of the emergence of moths, show the conditions for Santa Clara County. The band record was made in an unsprayed apple orchard. The data given in the respective tables are shown diagrammatically in figures 14 and 15.

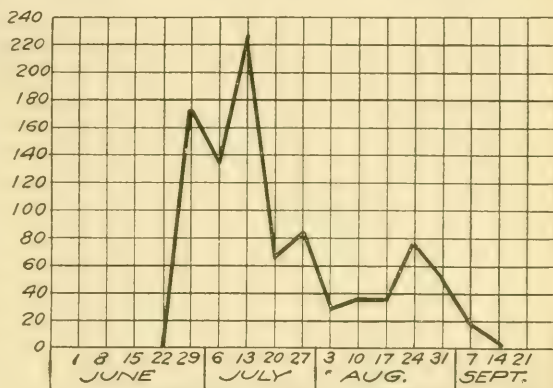


FIG. 12.—Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910. (Original.)

TABLE XVII.—Band records from apple trees, San Jose, Cal., 1909.

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 21.....	1,602	Aug. 2.....	647	Sept. 13.....	634	Oct. 25.....	1
28.....	2,276	9.....	365	20.....	649	Nov. 1.....	8
July 5.....	946	16.....	227	27.....	271	8.....	3
12.....	1,565	23.....	645	Oct. 4.....	135		
19.....	1,804	30.....	880	11.....	92	Total..	14,759
26.....	1,041	Sept. 6.....	951	18.....	18		

TABLE XVIII.—Emergence of moths from banded apple trees, San Jose, Cal., 1909.

Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.
July 12.....	55	Aug. 9.....	884	Sept. 6.....	40	Sept. 27.....	8
19.....	346	16.....	694	13.....	46		
26.....	731	23.....	441	20.....	133	Total..	4,320
Aug. 2.....	777	30.....	165				

NATURAL ENEMIES.

PARASITES.

At frequent intervals throughout the summer quantities of wormy

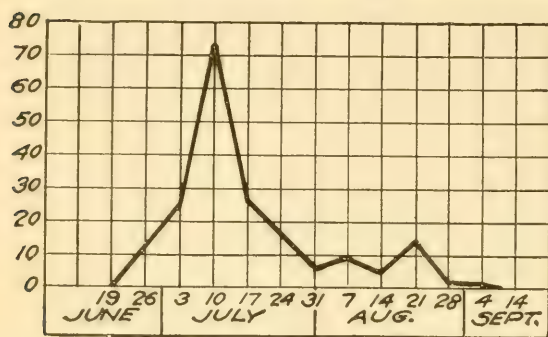


FIG. 13.—Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 15 pear trees, at Suisun Cal., 1910. (Original.)

fruit were brought into the laboratory from different orchards throughout Contra Costa County and kept in jars in shaded places out of doors, but not a single hymenopterous or dip-
terous parasite was reared from all the worms in this fruit. Neither was there any

reared from the material taken under bands on pear and apple trees.

PREDACEOUS ENEMIES.

Occasionally a carabid larva was found under the bands eating the larvæ, and late in the season a number of tenebrionid beetles, some of which were compared to beetles determined by Mr. E. A. Schwarz, of the Bureau of Entomology, as *Eulabis rufipes* Esch. and found to

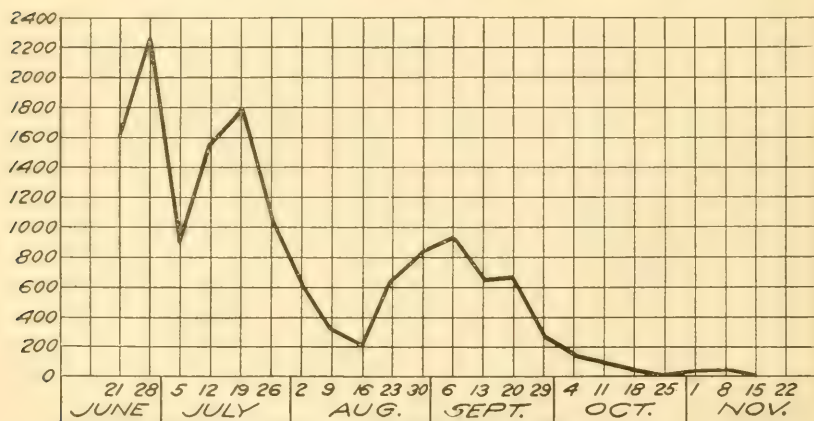


FIG. 14.—Band records of the codling moth from apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

be the same, were found under bands with partly eaten larvæ, but in no case were these beetles found actually eating the larvæ.

THE CONTROL OF THE CODLING MOTH ON PEARS IN CALIFORNIA.

There are some necessary differences in the treatment of pear and apple orchards for the control of the codling moth. The calyx lobes

in normal pears do not close up so quickly as in the case of the apple. The blooming period of pears in California is usually very much longer, sometimes lasting from three to five weeks from the first to last appearing blossoms. There is also a "second crop" of fruit which is somewhat later than the other and longer stemmed. It is noticeable that the calyx lobes on this second-crop fruit close up tightly very quickly after the shedding of the petals. As a large percentage of the first-brood worms enters the fruit through the calyx, it is necessary to have poison in the calyx cups before they are closed. The first larvæ begin to hatch some three to five weeks after the blooming period is over. At least one and preferably two thorough sprayings should be given before this period of hatching of the larvæ.

Opportunity was offered during the season of 1909 to test the value of two and three treatments on pears and in 1910 a larger set of experiments, to determine the number of applications most efficient and the value of each as compared with no treatment at all, was carried out. The results of these and certain other observations are given in the following pages.

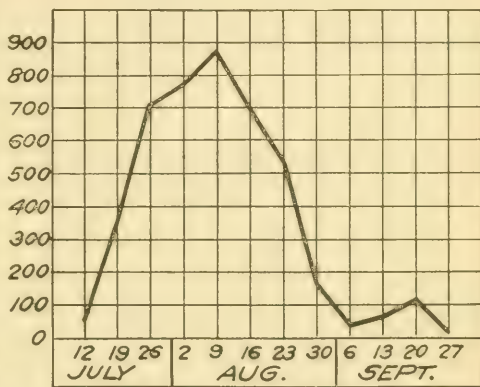


FIG. 15.—Weekly emergence of 'codling moths from larvæ collected from banded apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

EFFECT OF SPRAYS ON PLACES OF ENTRANCE INTO PEARS BY LARVÆ.

Records were kept throughout both seasons for the entrance holes of all the larvæ in the fruit of 10 trees in each block used in the spraying experiments.

It is interesting to note the places of entrance in the fruit by the larvæ, the effect of the different applications on the comparative percentages of worms entering at the calyx and at the side and stem, and where the greater number of larvæ was killed. These data are given in Tables XIX to XXXIII, inclusive. (Tables XIX to XXI are the records from the 1909 experiments at Concord, Cal.; Tables XXII to XXIX, the records from the 1910 experiments at Walnut Creek, Cal.; and Tables XXX to XXXIII the records from the experiments at Suisun, Cal., in 1910.) Only the worms entering at the calyx cavity proper are recorded as calyx worms; all larvæ entering the fruit through side, base, and around the stem are recorded under the heading of side and stem.

TABLE XIX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat I, sprayed three times, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	23	8	15	39	15	24	62	23	39	37.10	62.90
2.....	5	2	3	34	8	26	39	10	29	25.64	74.36
3.....	8	5	3	24	7	17	32	12	20	37.50	62.50
4.....	14	6	8	43	6	37	57	12	45	21.05	78.95
5.....	4	1	3	20	6	14	24	7	17	29.16	70.84
6.....	19	7	12	21	9	12	40	16	24	40.00	60.00
7.....	11	3	8	22	8	14	33	11	22	33.33	66.67
8.....	8	2	6	17	11	6	25	13	12	52.00	48.00
9.....	19	6	13	19	6	13	38	12	26	31.57	68.43
10.....	15	5	10	14	3	11	29	8	21	27.58	72.42
Total, trees 1-10.....	126	45	81	253	79	174	379	124	255	32.72	67.28

TABLE XX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat II, unsprayed, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	311	231	80	833	635	198	1,144	866	278	75.69	24.31
2.....	327	244	83	551	418	133	878	662	216	75.40	24.61
3.....	248	200	48	425	318	107	673	518	155	76.96	23.00
4.....	213	172	41	350	238	112	563	410	153	72.82	27.14
5.....	262	200	62	459	335	124	721	535	186	74.20	25.88
6.....	230	180	50	560	402	158	790	582	208	73.67	26.30
7.....	201	172	29	596	444	152	797	616	181	77.29	22.73
8.....	242	194	48	395	258	137	637	452	185	70.95	29.01
9.....	242	163	79	460	292	168	702	455	247	64.81	35.15
10.....	295	236	59	408	287	121	703	523	180	74.39	25.69
Total, trees 1-10.....	2,571	1,992	579	5,037	3,627	1,410	7,608	5,619	1,989	73.86	26.14

TABLE XXI.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx and at side and stem. Plat III, sprayed twice, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	43	19	24	140	92	48	183	111	72	60.66	39.34
2.....	62	36	26	175	103	72	237	139	98	58.65	41.35
3.....	21	11	10	95	49	46	116	60	56	51.72	48.28
4.....	50	29	21	145	96	49	195	125	70	64.10	35.90
5.....	62	36	26	209	152	57	271	188	83	69.37	30.63
6.....	54	27	27	130	93	37	184	120	64	65.21	34.79
7.....	22	11	11	95	77	18	117	88	29	75.21	24.79
8.....	35	23	12	111	71	40	146	94	52	64.38	35.62
9.....	37	21	16	105	72	33	142	93	49	65.42	34.58
10.....	31	19	12	109	72	37	140	91	49	65.00	35.00
Total, trees 1-10.....	417	232	185	1,314	877	437	1,731	1,109	622	63.97	36.03

TABLE XXII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx and at side and stem. Plat I, sprayed three times, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	1	0	1	9	0	9	10	0	10	0.00	100.00
2.....	3	0	3	7	0	7	10	0	10	.00	100.00
3.....	1	0	1	5	1	4	6	1	5	16.67	83.33
4.....	2	0	2	4	0	4	6	0	6	.00	100.00
5.....	3	0	3	6	0	6	9	0	9	.00	100.00
6.....	2	0	2	7	0	7	9	0	9	.00	100.00
7.....	8	1	7	21	1	20	29	2	27	6.90	93.10
8.....	6	1	5	19	1	18	25	2	23	8.00	92.00
9.....	2	0	2	15	1	14	17	1	16	5.88	94.12
10.....	1	0	1	4	1	3	5	1	4	20.00	80.00
Total, trees 1-10.....	29	2	27	97	5	92	126	7	119	5.56	94.44

TABLE XXIII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering fruit at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat II, sprayed April 9 and May 2, being first and second spraying as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	2	2	0	32	2	30	34	4	30	11.76	88.24
2.....	2	1	1	56	2	54	58	3	55	5.17	94.83
3.....	2	1	1	21	0	21	23	1	22	4.35	95.65
4.....	2	0	2	37	0	37	39	0	39	.00	100.00
5.....	6	2	4	41	4	37	47	6	41	12.77	87.23
6.....	2	2	0	43	6	37	45	8	37	17.78	82.22
7.....	6	1	5	41	1	40	47	2	45	4.26	95.74
8.....	4	2	2	60	2	58	64	4	60	6.25	93.75
9.....	2	0	2	75	1	74	77	1	76	1.30	98.70
10.....	2	0	2	36	3	33	38	3	35	7.90	92.10
Total, trees 1-10.....	30	11	19	442	21	421	472	32	440	6.79	93.21

TABLE XXIV.—*Comparison of number of worms entering fruit at calyx and at side and stem. Plat III, sprayed April 9 and July 4, being first and third applications as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	14	5	9	45	14	31	59	19	40	32.21	67.79
2.....	11	3	8	38	6	32	49	9	40	18.37	81.63
3.....	10	1	9	23	3	20	33	4	29	12.12	87.88
4.....	9	4	5	24	1	23	33	5	28	15.15	84.85
5.....	17	7	10	66	11	55	83	18	65	21.69	78.31
6.....	9	4	5	20	3	17	29	7	22	24.14	75.86
7.....	19	9	10	53	11	42	72	20	52	27.78	72.22
8.....	9	3	6	15	4	11	24	7	17	29.18	70.82
9.....	11	4	7	16	3	13	27	7	20	25.93	74.07
10.....	22	15	7	75	28	47	97	43	54	44.33	55.67
Total, trees 1-10.....	131	55	76	375	84	291	506	139	367	27.47	72.53

TABLE XXV.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat IV, sprayed May 2 and July 4, being second and third applications as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	21	10	11	80	37	43	101	47	54	46.54	53.46
2.....	39	32	7	78	40	38	117	72	45	61.54	38.46
3.....	49	39	10	87	31	56	136	70	66	51.47	48.53
4.....	35	26	9	89	38	51	124	64	60	51.61	48.39
5.....	15	10	5	21	13	8	36	23	13	63.89	36.11
6.....	24	20	4	88	37	51	112	57	55	50.89	49.11
7.....	26	17	9	82	27	55	108	44	64	40.74	59.26
8.....	14	8	6	52	26	26	66	34	32	51.52	48.48
9.....	11	9	2	66	32	34	77	41	36	53.25	46.75
10.....	13	6	7	32	18	14	45	24	21	53.33	46.67
Total, trees 1-10.....	247	177	70	675	299	376	922	476	446	51.63	48.37

TABLE XXVI.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat V, sprayed July 4, being third application as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	78	74	4	89	68	21	167	142	25	85.03	14.97
2.....	132	120	12	112	83	29	244	203	41	83.20	16.80
3.....	80	74	6	59	44	15	139	118	21	84.89	15.11
4.....	84	76	8	56	48	8	140	124	16	88.57	11.43
5.....	116	104	12	116	102	14	232	206	26	88.79	11.21
6.....	108	96	12	94	84	10	202	180	22	89.11	10.89
7.....	218	197	21	198	162	36	416	359	57	86.30	13.70
8.....	82	75	7	83	73	10	165	148	17	89.69	10.31
9.....	83	74	9	89	71	18	172	145	27	84.30	15.70
10.....	41	37	4	58	41	17	99	78	21	78.79	21.21
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,022	927	95	954	776	178	1,976	1,703	273	86.18	13.82

TABLE XXVII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat VI, unsprayed check, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	192	181	11	153	146	7	345	327	18	94.78	5.22
2.....	119	106	13	91	77	14	210	183	27	87.14	12.86
3.....	181	165	16	134	131	3	315	296	19	93.97	6.03
4.....	139	123	16	119	112	7	258	235	23	91.08	8.92
5.....	95	86	9	84	78	6	179	164	15	91.60	8.40
6.....	119	106	13	52	47	5	171	153	18	89.48	10.52
7.....	58	54	4	95	79	16	153	133	20	86.93	13.07
8.....	105	89	16	97	91	6	202	180	22	89.10	10.90
9.....	119	104	15	134	130	4	253	234	19	92.50	7.50
10.....	118	105	13	75	70	5	193	175	18	90.67	9.33
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,245	1,119	126	1,034	961	73	2,279	2,080	199	91.27	8.73

TABLE XXVIII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat VII, sprayed April 9, being first application as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	15	7	8	26	8	18	41	15	26	36.59	63.41
2.....	6	2	4	32	8	24	38	10	28	26.33	73.67
3.....	10	5	5	88	15	73	98	20	78	20.41	79.59
4.....	21	9	12	54	8	46	75	17	58	22.67	77.33
5.....	9	2	5	52	10	42	59	12	47	20.34	79.66
6.....	9	4	5	116	15	101	125	19	106	15.20	84.80
7.....	27	8	19	75	49	26	102	57	45	55.88	44.12
8.....	20	11	9	42	7	35	62	18	44	29.19	70.81
9.....	6	1	5	45	9	36	51	10	41	19.61	80.39
10.....	5	3	2	37	11	26	42	14	28	33.33	66.67
Total, trees 1-10.....	126	52	74	567	140	427	693	192	501	27.71	72.29

TABLE XXIX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat VIII, sprayed May 2, being second application as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	1	1		19	4	15	20	5	15	25.00	75.00
2.....	31	22	9	70	32	38	101	54	47	48.65	51.35
3.....	10	8	2	42	12	30	52	20	32	38.46	61.54
4.....	29	24	5	116	53	63	145	77	68	53.10	46.90
5.....	21	15	6	29	10	19	50	25	25	50.00	50.00
6.....	82	50	32	119	43	76	201	93	108	46.27	53.73
7.....	20	11	9	53	24	29	73	35	38	47.95	52.05
8.....	19	13	6	39	16	23	58	29	29	50.00	50.00
9.....	28	20	8	64	25	39	92	45	47	48.91	51.09
10.....	19	10	9	46	20	26	65	30	35	46.15	53.85
Total, trees 1-10.....	260	174	86	597	239	358	857	413	444	48.19	51.81

TABLE XXX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering fruit at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat I, sprayed three times, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	19	9	10	36	7	29	55	16	39	29.09	70.91
2.....	8	4	4	15	4	11	23	8	15	34.78	65.22
3.....	6	2	4	11	4	7	17	6	11	35.29	64.71
4.....	6	1	5	16	1	15	22	2	20	9.09	90.91
5.....	14	7	7	12	3	9	26	10	16	38.46	61.54
6.....	12	5	7	9	0	9	21	5	16	23.81	76.19
7.....	22	8	14	37	8	29	59	16	43	27.12	72.88
8.....	30	10	20	39	14	25	69	24	45	34.78	65.22
9.....	13	4	9	30	7	23	43	11	32	25.58	74.42
10.....	29	16	13	59	16	43	88	32	56	36.36	63.64
Total, trees 1-10.....	159	66	93	264	64	200	423	130	293	30.73	69.27

TABLE XXXI.—Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. *Plat II, sprayed May 5 and June 16, being second and third applications as given Plat I, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	57	40	17	56	34	22	113	74	39	65.49	34.51
2.....	95	66	29	123	82	41	218	148	70	67.89	32.11
3.....	72	55	17	130	84	46	202	139	63	68.81	31.19
4.....	51	42	9	52	31	21	103	73	30	70.87	29.13
5.....	77	60	17	107	75	32	184	135	49	73.37	26.63
6.....	149	114	35	149	92	57	298	206	92	69.13	30.87
7.....	74	47	27	76	50	26	150	97	53	64.67	35.33
8.....	114	83	31	140	101	39	254	184	70	72.44	27.56
9.....	54	27	7	67	37	30	101	64	37	63.37	36.63
10.....	103	78	25	139	62	77	242	140	102	57.85	42.15
Total, trees 1-10.....	826	612	214	1,039	648	391	1,865	1,260	605	67.56	32.44

TABLE XXXII.—Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. *Plat III, sprayed April 7 and June 17, being first and third applications as given Plat I, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	25	16	9	56	13	43	81	29	52	35.80	64.20
2.....	17	8	9	36	13	23	53	21	32	39.63	60.37
3.....	44	27	17	45	18	27	89	45	44	50.56	49.44
4.....	13	7	6	26	8	18	39	15	24	38.46	61.54
5.....	18	9	9	34	7	27	52	16	36	30.77	69.23
6.....	43	19	24	67	26	41	110	45	65	40.91	59.09
7.....	59	36	23	127	52	75	186	88	98	47.31	52.69
8.....	44	19	25	91	41	50	135	60	75	44.44	55.56
9.....	41	24	17	52	15	37	93	39	54	41.94	58.06
10.....	20	12	8	41	17	24	61	29	32	47.54	52.46
Total, trees 1-10.....	324	177	147	575	210	365	899	387	512	43.05	56.95

TABLE XXXIII.—Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. *Plat IV, unsprayed check, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	370	350	20	158	143	15	528	493	35	93.37	6.63
2.....	199	188	11	118	112	6	317	300	17	94.64	5.36
3.....	420	398	22	136	123	13	556	521	35	93.70	6.30
4.....	171	160	11	227	213	14	398	373	25	93.72	6.28
5.....	386	359	27	326	301	25	712	660	52	92.69	7.31
6.....	248	227	21	228	219	9	476	446	30	93.70	6.30
7.....	496	476	20	195	182	13	691	658	33	95.22	4.78
8.....	193	179	14	107	100	7	300	279	21	93.00	7.00
9.....	533	503	30	255	234	21	788	737	51	93.52	6.48
10.....	481	464	17	404	367	37	885	831	54	93.90	6.10
Total, trees 1-10.....	3,497	3,304	193	2,154	1,994	160	5,651	5,296	355	93.72	6.28

To show more fully the results of the different sprayings as influencing the places of entrance of the worms and showing where they are mostly killed Tables XXXIV, XXXV, and XXXVI have been prepared, which are in part summaries of the foregoing tables and of those which are to follow under the heading of "Commercial results from spraying."

In Table XXXIV, in the unsprayed portion, Plat VI, 85.702 per cent of the pears were wormy at the calyx, and 8.198 per cent were wormy at the side and stem, while in the demonstration block, Plat I, which received three sprayings only, 0.223 per cent of the pears were wormy at the calyx and 3.803 per cent at the side and stem. This indicates that the sprayings reduced the infestation at the calyx from 85.702 per cent to 0.223 per cent, a reduction to approximately one three-hundred-and-eighty-fourth of the original infestation. That is, the check plat showed 384 times more pears wormy at the calyx than was the case with Plat I. The infestation at the side and stem was reduced from 8.198 per cent on the check plat to 3.803 per cent for Plat I, a reduction of only a little over one-half of the original infestation. While the infestation at the calyx was reduced 384 times, the infestation at the side and stem was reduced only 2.4 times.

Plat II, which received the two early sprayings for the first-brood worms, but no late spraying corresponding to the third treatment on Plat I, had 0.747 per cent of the pears wormy at the calyx, indicating a reduction to about one one-hundred-and-fourteenth of the original infestation, while the infestation at the side and stem was not reduced but apparently slightly increased, as this plat showed 9.943 per cent of the fruit wormy at the side and stem as against 8.198 per cent wormy at the side and stem in the unsprayed check plat.

This phenomenon might be thought to indicate that there was some repellent action by the arsenate of lead in the calyx cavity to cause the worms to seek the uncoated surface of the pear. However, this is probably explained by the fact that on the unsprayed block such a large portion of the pears were injured by the first-brood worms and fell off the trees before the appearance of the second-brood worms, that, although the same proportion of worms of this second brood entered the side of the fruit in the check block as in the block receiving the two early sprayings, there were not enough pears left on the trees in the check block to bring the average of the total crop of pears, wormy at the side, up to that of Plat II, where a much larger portion of the year's crop had been kept on the trees by the early sprayings. This same condition holds true for the unsprayed check, Plat IV, in Table XXXV, recording experiments at Suisun in 1910. More than 60 per cent of the total crop of fruit from the check plat dropped from the trees, due almost entirely to the work of the first-brood worms. On the sprayed blocks only 13 to 22 per cent of the total crop of fruit dropped from the trees.

In Plat II of Table XXXVI, recording the 1909 experiments at Concord, worms were not so prevalent, the fruit on the unsprayed plat being only 53.05 per cent wormy and only about 31 per cent of the fruit dropping from the trees. (See Table XXXVIII.) This plat shows a much higher percentage (13.869 per cent) of the pears wormy at the side and stem. Also, if we examine Plat V of Table XXXIV, recording the 1910 experiments at Walnut Creek, we find a higher percentage of pears wormy at the side and stem, namely, 11.699 per cent as against 8.198 per cent in the check block. Plat V received no treatment for the first-brood worms, but was sprayed once on July 4 just before the second-brood worms began to enter the fruit. The surface of the fruit was fairly well covered, yet the percentage of fruit wormy at the side and stem was greater than was that of the unsprayed block. In this case it will be seen (Tables XLIV and XLV) that there was more fruit on the trees at picking time in Plat V than on the trees of the check plat. Also there were correspondingly more windfalls from the trees in the check plat than from the trees in Plat V.

All of the plats receiving the first spraying (soon after falling of petals) show a comparatively light infestation at the calyx, and those receiving the two early sprayings have very few pears wormy at the calyx. (See Plats I, II, III, and VII, Table XXXIV.) Those plats on which this first spraying was omitted have a greater percentage of pears wormy at calyx, although they received one thorough spraying just before the first-brood worms began to enter the fruit, which was some four weeks after the petals had fallen. (See Plats IV and VIII, Table XXXIV.)

TABLE XXXIV.—*Degree of infestation and relative infestation at different places of entrance by codling-moth larvæ. Plats I to VIII, inclusive, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Plat.	Total number of pears.	Total number of wormy pears.	Degree of infestation.			Relative infestation at different places of entrance.		
			Total per cent of wormy pears.	Total per cent of pears wormy at calyx.	Total per cent of pears wormy at side and stem.	Total number of worms (100 per cent).	Percentage of worms entering at calyx.	Percentage of worms entering at side and stem.
Plat I, sprayed Apr. 9, May 2, July 14...	3,126	126	4.03	0.223	3.803	126	5.56	94.44
Plat II, sprayed Apr. 9 and May 2.....	4,415	472	10.69	.747	9.943	472	6.79	93.21
Plat III, sprayed Apr. 9 and July 4...	2,477	506	20.43	5.611	14.816	506	27.47	72.53
Plat IV, sprayed May 2 and July 4.....	4,096	922	22.51	11.621	10.888	922	51.63	48.37
Plat V, sprayed July 4.....	2,248	1,976	87.90	76.201	11.699	1,976	86.18	13.82
Plat VI, unsprayed check.....	2,427	2,279	93.90	85.702	8.198	2,279	91.27	8.73
Plat VII, sprayed Apr. 9.....	2,128	693	32.57	9.020	23.550	693	27.71	72.29
Plat VIII, sprayed May 2.....	2,811	857	30.49	14.695	15.795	857	48.19	51.81

TABLE XXXV.—*Degree of infestation and relative infestation at different places of entrance by codling-moth larvæ. Plats I-IV, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Plat.	Total number of pears.	Total number of wormy pears.	Degree of infestation.			Relative infestation at different places of entrance.		
			Total per cent of wormy pears.	Total per cent of pears wormy at calyx.	Total per cent of pears wormy at side and stem.	Total number of worms (100 per cent).	Percentage of worms entering at calyx.	Percentage of worms entering at side and stem.
Plat I, sprayed Apr. 6, May 4, and June 16.....	7,290	423	5.80	1.783	4.019	423	30.73	69.27
Plat II, sprayed May 5 and June 16.....	6,538	1,865	28.52	19.270	9.250	1,865	67.56	32.44
Plat III, sprayed Apr. 7 and June 17.....	6,381	899	14.09	6.065	8.024	899	43.05	56.95
Plat IV, unsprayed check.....	5,941	5,651	95.12	89.143	5.975	5,651	93.72	6.28

TABLE XXXVI.—*Degree of infestation and relative infestation at different places of entrance by codling-moth larvæ. Plats I to III, inclusive, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Plat.	Total number of pears.	Total number of wormy pears.	Degree of infestation.			Relative infestation at different places of entrance.		
			Per cent of wormy pears.	Per cent of pears wormy at calyx.	Per cent of pears wormy at side and stem.	Total number of worms (100 per cent).	Percentage of worms entering at calyx.	Percentage of worms entering at side and stem.
Plat I, sprayed Apr. 17, May 10, and June 29.....	13,219	379	2.86	0.938	1.929	379	32.72	67.28
Plat II, unsprayed check.....	14,290	7,581	53.05	39.181	13.869	7,581	73.86	26.14
Plat III, sprayed Apr. 18 and June 29.....	13,943	1,731	12.415	7.954	4.461	1,731	63.97	36.03

For the best results in obtaining fruit free from worms, it is desirable to spray three times, but if only two applications can be put on, the two early treatments give far better results than any other two sprayings.

COMMERCIAL RESULTS FROM SPRAYING.

CONTRA COSTA COUNTY, 1909.

The 15-acre Bartlett pear orchard belonging to Mr. George Whittman and located in the central part of Ygnacio Valley, Contra Costa County (see Plate III), was used for this work in 1909. The trees are large and well cared for, comparing favorably with the average California pear orchard.

The larger part of the orchard was included in Plat I as a demonstration. Four rows across the middle of the orchard were left unsprayed for comparison. Plat III consisted of six rows across the north end of the orchard.

The first spraying for Plats I and III was just after most of the petals had fallen from the trees, April 17 to 21. Calyx cups on some of the second-crop fruit were closing at this time. For this spraying the nozzles were held close to the fruit clusters in order to fill the calyx cavities as much as possible. Many counts showed from 80 to 85 per cent of all cups to have been filled. The second spraying on Plat I came about three weeks later, May 10 to 12, after the first moths were out and depositing eggs. This spraying was omitted on Plat III. The last spraying was for the second-brood worms and was applied June 28 to 30 on Plats I and III, just after the second-brood moths began to emerge in numbers.

A gasoline power outfit was used for all sprayings. One man was stationed on a tower platform 8 feet above the tank to spray the tops of the trees while two men sprayed from the ground, supplied with bamboo rods 10 and 12 feet long with large nozzles with wide chambers throwing a mist which spread quickly after leaving the nozzle. A uniform pressure of 150 to 175 pounds was maintained, and arsenate of lead at the rate of 2 pounds to 50 gallons of water was used, requiring an average of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 gallons of spray per tree for each application.

The total expense of spraying, including the arsenate of lead at $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, four men to run the machine and do the spraying at \$1.50 per day for each man, and two horses at \$1 each per day, and gasoline and lubricating oil, etc., amounted to $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents per tree for three applications and $4\frac{1}{3}$ cents per tree for two applications. The records in Tables XXXVII, XXXVIII, and XXXIX give the comparison of the sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in each plat for the season. The windfalls were gathered and graded once each week.

TABLE XXXVII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 pear trees of Plat I, sprayed three times, in orchard of Mr. George Whitman, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent sound.
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	
1.....	440	23	417	1,294	39	1,255	1,734	62	1,672	96.42
2.....	95	5	90	1,078	34	1,044	1,173	39	1,134	96.68
3.....	73	8	65	775	24	751	848	32	816	96.23
4.....	171	14	157	1,548	43	1,505	1,719	57	1,662	96.68
5.....	90	4	86	1,025	20	1,005	1,115	24	1,091	97.85
6.....	368	19	349	846	21	825	1,214	40	1,174	96.71
7.....	153	11	142	1,164	22	1,142	1,317	33	1,284	97.50
8.....	122	8	114	794	17	777	916	25	891	97.28
9.....	658	19	639	1,298	19	1,279	1,956	38	1,918	98.06
10.....	246	15	231	981	14	967	1,227	29	1,198	97.64
Total, trees 1-10.....	2,416	126	2,290	10,803	253	10,550	13,219	379	12,840	97.12



GENERAL VIEW OF THE WHITMAN PEAR ORCHARD, WITH POWER SPRAYING OUTFIT IN OPERATION IN SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST CODLING MOTH, CONCORD, CAL., 1909. (ORIGINAL.)

TABLE XXXVIII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 pear trees from unsprayed check plat in pear orchard of Mr. George Whitman, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent sound.
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	
1.....	610	311	299	1,358	833	525	1,968	1,144	824	41.87
2.....	619	307	312	982	551	431	1,601	858	743	46.41
3.....	456	248	208	929	425	504	1,385	673	712	51.40
4.....	444	213	231	764	350	414	1,208	563	645	53.39
5.....	430	262	168	949	459	490	1,379	721	658	47.72
6.....	390	230	160	1,315	560	755	1,705	790	915	53.67
7.....	356	201	155	1,164	596	568	1,520	797	723	47.57
8.....	351	242	109	678	395	283	1,029	637	392	38.08
9.....	407	242	165	885	460	425	1,292	702	590	45.67
10.....	416	288	128	787	408	379	1,203	696	507	42.14
Total trees 1-10.....	4,479	2,544	1,935	9,811	5,037	4,774	14,290	7,581	6,709	46.95

TABLE XXXIX.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 pear trees in Plat III, sprayed twice, in orchard of Mr. George Whitman, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent sound.
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	
1.....	420	43	377	897	140	757	1,317	183	1,134	86.10
2.....	336	62	274	1,055	175	880	1,391	237	1,154	82.96
3.....	203	21	182	1,120	95	1,025	1,323	116	1,207	91.24
4.....	418	50	368	867	145	722	1,285	195	1,090	84.82
5.....	549	62	487	889	209	680	1,438	271	1,167	81.16
6.....	431	54	377	875	130	745	1,306	184	1,122	85.91
7.....	281	22	259	653	95	558	934	117	817	87.47
8.....	374	35	339	1,150	111	1,039	1,524	146	1,378	80.58
9.....	467	37	430	1,171	105	1,066	1,638	142	1,496	91.33
10.....	669	31	638	1,118	109	1,009	1,787	140	1,647	92.17
Total trees 1-10.....	4,148	417	3,731	9,795	1,314	8,481	13,943	1,731	12,212	87.59

The fruit from the unsprayed plat was 53.05 per cent wormy. That of Plat III, sprayed twice, was 12.41 per cent wormy, showing a gain of 40.64 per cent for two sprayings, and Plat I had 2.87 per cent wormy pears with 97.12 per cent sound, realizing an increase of 50.18 per cent sound fruit over the unsprayed trees.

PROFITS.

The 10 trees in the unsprayed block, Plat II, Table XXXVIII, gave a yield of 4,774 sound pears. Allowing 150 pears per box this would give 31.82 boxes of shipping fruit. The net price this year for pears shipped east was about 80 cents per box. Taking this as the price for all the sound pears shows a total of \$25.45 returns from the 10 trees not sprayed. Counting all windfalls after July 3 and all the wormy fruit picked from the tree as fit for drying there were 7,939 such pears, or approximately 2,540 pounds, which would make 362

pounds of dried fruit.^a Allowing 7 cents per pound for this, minus $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents for the cost of drying, gives \$19.95, the possible returns for the fruit not shipped. This, with the amount received for the fruit shipped, gives a total of \$45.50 returns for the 10 trees, or \$4.55 per tree.

Plat III, Table XXXIX, produced 8,481 sound pears, or 63.20 boxes, which at 80 cents per box gives a gross return of \$50.56 for the fruit shipped. There were 4,159 wormy pears and windfalls for the dry ground, or 1,321 pounds of green fruit, giving 188.70 pounds of dried fruit, which, at the same price as the other, makes \$10.37. This, added to the \$50.56 for the fruit shipped east, gives \$60.93 for the gross returns from the ten trees, or \$6.09 per tree. Deducting from this $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents for the cost of spraying, leaves a net return of \$6.04 per tree, or a net increase of \$1.49 per tree for the two sprayings over the check block.

Plat I, Table XXXVII, sprayed three times, gave 10,550 sound pears picked from the 10 trees, or 70.33 boxes. At 80 cents per box this gives \$56.26 returns for the fruit shipped. There were 1,941 windfalls and wormy pears from the trees, or 621 pounds of green fruit, making 88.70 pounds of dried fruit, which at 7 cents per pound (minus $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents, the cost of drying) leaves \$4.88 for the dried fruit. Adding this to the returns for the shipped fruit gives \$61.14 gross returns for the 10 trees, or \$6.114 per tree. Deducting from this $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents, the cost of spraying three times, leaves a net return of \$6.04 per tree, a net increase of \$1.49 per tree or \$156.45 per acre over the unsprayed trees.

These figures show no gain in Plat I over Plat III for the extra spraying, which came May 10 to 11, but by referring to Tables XXXVII and XXXIX it will be seen that there was an increase of 9.42 per cent of sound fruit for this spraying. Also the total number of pears from the 10 trees in Plat III was greater by 724, or there were 5.17 per cent more pears than from the 10 trees in Plat I. The difference was even greater between the check block and the demonstration. The check block, Plat II, having 1,071, or 7.42 per cent, more pears than the 10 trees in Plat III.

CONTRA COSTA COUNTY, 1910.

An orchard consisting of about 750 Bartlett pear trees belonging to the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co. and located some 3 miles from Walnut Creek was used for the experiments in 1910. The orchard was laid off into eight plats of from 75 to 100 trees each and sprayed as follows:

^a All figures for these ratios are based on 150 pears to a box of 48 pounds and a ratio of 7 tons of fruit as it is picked up in the field producing 1 ton of dried fruit.

Plat No.	First spraying, Apr. 9.	Second spraying, May 2.	Third spraying, July 4.
I	XX.....	XX.....	XX (demonstration).
II	XX.....	XX.....	Omit.
III	XX.....	Omit.....	XX.
IV	Omit.....	XX.....	XX.
V	Omit.....	Omit.....	XX.
VI	Omit.....	Omit.....	Omit (check).
VII	XX.....	Omit.....	Omit.
VIII	Omit.....	XX.....	Omit.

XX=Sprayed.
Omit=Unsprayed.

The codling moth had been very abundant in this orchard for several years, frequently occurring in such numbers that 90 per cent or more of the fruit was infested. The unsprayed plat this year had 93.90 per cent wormy fruit. The same outfit was used this year as was used in the Whitman orchard in 1909 and the same materials, namely, arsenate of lead, except that half of each plat was sprayed with arsenate of lead at the rate of 6 pounds to each 100 gallons of water and the other half with arsenate of lead at the rate of 4 pounds to each 100 gallons of water at each application. Five of the ten trees selected for records were taken from each half of the blocks and the records kept separately throughout the season. No consistent differences could be found and it is quite evident that 4 pounds of arsenate of lead is as efficient as 6 pounds for each 100 gallons of water. All spraying was done thoroughly and, so far as possible, all the calyx cups on those plats receiving the first application were well filled with spray. The results showing the sound and wormy fruit from the eight plats are given in Tables XL to XLVII. The windfalls were gathered and examined once each week.

TABLE XL.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat I, sprayed three times, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., near Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	28	1	27	411	9	402	439	10	429	2.28	97.72
2.....	8	3	5	143	7	136	151	10	141	6.62	93.38
3.....	28	1	27	364	5	359	392	6	386	1.53	98.47
4.....	19	2	17	218	4	214	237	6	231	2.53	97.47
5.....	15	3	12	138	6	132	153	9	144	5.88	94.12
6.....	18	2	16	232	7	225	250	9	241	3.60	96.40
7.....	34	8	26	459	21	438	493	29	464	5.88	94.12
8.....	69	6	63	301	19	282	370	25	345	6.76	93.24
9.....	30	2	28	381	15	366	411	17	394	4.14	95.86
10.....	12	1	11	218	4	214	230	5	225	2.17	97.83
Total, trees 1-10.....	261	29	232	2,865	97	2,768	3,126	126	3,000	4.03	95.97

TABLE XLI.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat II, sprayed Apr. 9 and May 2, being only first two applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	13	2	11	429	32	397	442	34	408	7.69	92.31
2.....	17	2	15	425	56	369	442	58	384	13.12	86.88
3.....	19	2	17	323	21	302	342	23	319	6.73	93.27
4.....	12	2	10	395	37	358	407	39	368	9.58	90.42
5.....	32	6	26	316	41	275	348	47	301	13.51	86.49
6.....	18	2	16	363	43	320	381	45	336	11.81	88.19
7.....	29	6	23	509	41	468	538	47	491	8.74	91.26
8.....	31	4	27	492	60	432	523	64	459	12.24	87.76
9.....	20	2	18	458	75	383	478	77	401	16.11	83.89
10.....	21	2	19	493	36	457	514	38	476	7.39	92.61
Total, trees 1-10.....	212	30	182	4,203	442	3,761	4,415	472	3,943	10.69	89.31

TABLE XLII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat III, sprayed Apr. 9 and July 4, being first and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	78	14	64	231	45	186	309	59	250	19.09	80.91
2.....	19	11	8	212	38	174	231	49	182	21.21	78.79
3.....	27	10	17	132	23	109	159	33	126	20.75	79.25
4.....	24	9	15	134	24	110	158	33	125	20.85	79.11
5.....	45	17	28	289	66	223	334	83	251	24.85	75.15
6.....	25	9	16	131	20	111	156	29	127	18.59	81.41
7.....	55	19	36	438	53	385	493	72	421	14.60	85.40
8.....	18	9	9	105	15	90	123	24	99	19.51	80.49
9.....	26	11	15	119	16	103	145	27	118	18.62	81.38
10.....	40	22	18	329	75	254	369	97	272	26.29	73.71
Total, trees 1-10.....	357	131	226	2,120	375	1,745	2,477	506	1,971	20.43	79.57

TABLE XLIII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat IV, sprayed May 2 and July 4, being second and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	88	21	67	411	80	331	499	101	398	21.44	79.56
2.....	81	39	42	472	78	394	553	117	436	21.16	78.84
3.....	76	49	27	388	87	301	464	136	328	29.31	70.69
4.....	53	35	18	507	89	418	560	124	436	22.14	77.86
5.....	22	15	7	114	21	93	136	36	100	26.47	73.53
6.....	43	24	19	547	88	459	590	112	478	18.98	81.02
7.....	53	26	27	519	82	437	572	108	464	18.88	81.12
8.....	20	14	6	220	52	168	240	66	174	27.50	72.50
9.....	16	11	5	286	66	220	302	77	225	25.50	74.50
10.....	21	13	8	159	32	127	180	45	135	25.00	75.00
Total, trees 1-10.....	473	247	226	3,623	675	2,948	4,096	922	3,174	22.51	77.49

TABLE XLIV.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat V, sprayed July 4, being third application as given Plat I (treatments for first-brood worms omitted), pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	87	78	9	109	89	20	196	167	29	85.20	14.80
2.....	139	132	7	134	112	22	273	244	29	89.38	10.62
3.....	85	80	5	79	59	20	164	139	25	84.76	15.24
4.....	91	84	7	66	56	10	157	140	17	89.17	10.83
5.....	128	116	12	132	116	16	260	232	28	89.23	10.77
6.....	112	108	4	102	94	8	214	202	12	94.40	5.60
7.....	229	218	11	263	198	65	492	416	76	84.55	15.45
8.....	83	82	1	97	83	14	180	165	15	91.67	8.33
9.....	90	83	7	104	89	15	194	172	22	88.66	11.34
10.....	46	41	5	72	58	14	118	99	19	83.89	16.11
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,090	1,022	68	1,158	954	204	2,248	1,976	272	87.90	12.10

TABLE XLV.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat VI, unsprayed check, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	208	192	16	158	153	5	366	345	21	94.26	5.74
2.....	122	119	3	95	91	4	217	210	7	96.77	3.23
3.....	194	181	13	136	134	2	330	315	15	95.45	4.55
4.....	148	139	9	126	119	7	274	258	16	94.16	5.84
5.....	100	95	5	84	84	0	184	179	5	97.82	2.18
6.....	148	119	29	54	52	2	202	171	31	84.65	15.35
7.....	63	58	5	103	95	8	166	153	13	92.17	7.83
8.....	114	105	9	103	97	6	217	202	15	93.09	6.91
9.....	127	119	8	139	134	5	266	253	13	95.11	4.89
10.....	127	118	9	78	75	3	205	193	12	94.14	5.86
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,351	1,245	106	1,076	1,034	42	2,427	2,279	148	93.90	6.10

TABLE XLVI.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat VII, sprayed Apr. 9, being first application as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	22	15	7	75	26	49	97	41	56	42.27	57.73
2.....	14	6	8	97	32	65	111	38	73	34.23	65.77
3.....	19	10	9	200	88	112	219	98	121	44.75	55.25
4.....	45	21	24	191	54	137	236	75	161	31.78	68.22
5.....	19	7	12	182	52	130	201	59	142	29.35	70.65
6.....	21	9	12	328	116	212	349	125	224	35.82	64.18
7.....	88	27	61	364	75	289	452	102	350	22.57	77.43
8.....	34	20	14	166	42	124	200	62	138	31.00	69.00
9.....	12	6	6	121	45	76	133	51	82	38.35	61.65
10.....	18	5	13	112	37	75	130	42	88	32.31	67.69
Total, trees 1-10.....	292	126	166	1,836	567	1,269	2,128	693	1,435	32.57	67.43

TABLE XLVII. — *Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat VIII, sprayed May 2, being second application as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	6	1	5	61	19	42	67	20	47	29.84	70.16
2.....	53	31	22	149	70	79	202	101	101	50.60	50.00
3.....	33	10	23	203	42	161	236	52	184	22.03	77.97
4.....	44	29	15	324	116	208	368	145	223	39.40	60.60
5.....	54	21	33	100	29	71	154	50	104	32.47	67.53
6.....	140	82	58	624	119	505	764	201	563	26.31	73.69
7.....	33	20	13	168	53	115	201	73	128	36.32	63.68
8.....	36	19	17	158	39	119	194	58	136	29.90	70.10
9.....	70	28	42	302	64	238	372	92	280	24.73	75.27
10.....	45	19	26	208	46	162	253	65	188	25.69	74.31
Total, trees 1-10.....	514	260	254	2,297	597	1,700	2,811	857	1,954	30.49	69.51

The fruit from the unsprayed block Plat VI (Table XLV) was 93.90 per cent wormy, while that from the demonstration block, Plat I (Table XL), sprayed three times, was only 4.03 per cent wormy, showing a gain of 89.87 per cent sound fruit for the three sprayings. Plat II (Table XLI), sprayed twice, both times for the first-brood worms, showed 10.69 per cent wormy, representing a gain in sound fruit of 83.21 per cent for two sprayings put on in time to catch the first-brood worms. Plat III (Table XLII), which was also sprayed twice, these being the first and last applications as given Plat I, the accessory treatment for the first brood being omitted, showed 20.43 per cent wormy fruit, showing a gain of 73.47 per cent sound fruit for the two sprayings. This gain, however, is 10.74 per cent less than was the case where both sprayings were put on in time for the first-brood worms. Plat IV (Table XLIII) received the second and third applications as given Plat I, the first spraying being omitted. The results showed 22.51 per cent of the fruit to be wormy, which is a gain of 70.39 per cent over the check plat, but is 11.82 per cent less than the gain on Plat II, where the two applications were put on early. The other plats, which received only one application, ran too high in wormy fruit to be considered at all from a commercial viewpoint. Thus, Plat VII (Table XLVI), which received only the first application, showed 32.57 per cent wormy and 67.43 per cent sound, while Plat VIII (Table XLVII), which received only the second application, had 30.49 per cent wormy and 69.51 per cent sound. Plat V (Table XLIV), which received only the last application, was little better than the check, having 87.90 per cent of the fruit wormy and only 12.10 per cent sound.

PROFITS.

From the 10 trees of Plat I, 2,768 pears free from worms, or 18.45 boxes, were picked, which at the average net price of 80 cents per box gives \$14.76, or \$1.47 per tree, which represents about \$147.60 per acre. To this should be added \$5.60 which represents the value per acre of the windfalls and wormy fruit from the trees of Plat I, giving a total of \$153.20.

The 10 trees in Plat VI, the unsprayed check, yielded only 42 pears, or 0.28 box free from worms at picking time. This at 80 cents per box gives 22 cents for the 10 trees, or approximately \$2.20 per acre. There were, after July 15, 1,032 windfalls and wormy pears picked from the trees, which represent a cash value of \$4.52 for the 10 trees, or \$45.20 per acre, giving a total return of \$47.40 per acre for the fruit from the unsprayed portion. Subtracting this from the value of the crop per acre of Plat I gives a difference of about \$100 in favor of spraying. Subtracting from this \$6.50, the cost of spraying per acre, gives \$93.50 net gain per acre due to spraying.

EXPERIMENTS IN SOLANO COUNTY, 1910.

A large pear orchard belonging to Mr. G. W. Langdon and located near the upper end of Suisun Valley at Suisun, Cal., consists of very old and large trees, and in recent years a very small portion of the fruit has been merchantable in the green state, due to the high infestation by the codling moth. The larger part of the orchard was sprayed three times. Three other blocks of about 70 trees each were used to test the relative value of the first and third applications and the second and third applications with the plat receiving the three applications and one of the plats was left unsprayed for check and comparison. The results showing sound and wormy fruit from each plat are given in Tables XLVIII to LI.

TABLE XLVIII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat I, sprayed three times, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	143	19	124	962	36	926	1,105	55	1,050	4.98	95.02
2.....	97	8	89	599	15	584	696	23	673	3.30	96.70
3.....	77	6	71	685	11	674	762	17	745	2.23	97.77
4.....	37	6	31	422	16	406	459	22	437	4.79	95.21
5.....	110	14	96	666	12	654	776	26	750	3.35	96.65
6.....	101	12	89	553	9	544	654	21	633	3.21	96.79
7.....	184	22	162	1,094	37	1,057	1,278	59	1,219	4.62	95.38
8.....	103	30	73	425	39	386	528	69	459	13.07	86.93
9.....	59	13	46	221	30	191	280	43	237	15.36	84.64
10.....	100	29	71	652	59	593	752	88	664	11.70	88.30
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,011	159	852	6,279	264	6,015	7,290	423	6,867	5.80	94.20

TABLE XLIX.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat II, sprayed May 5 and June 16, being second and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	84	57	27	355	56	299	439	113	326	25.74	74.26
2.....	154	95	59	508	123	385	662	218	444	32.93	67.07
3.....	128	72	56	665	130	535	793	202	591	25.47	74.53
4.....	87	51	36	264	52	212	351	103	248	29.34	70.66
5.....	117	77	40	482	107	375	599	184	415	30.72	69.28
6.....	283	149	134	632	149	483	915	298	617	32.57	67.43
7.....	123	74	49	428	76	352	551	150	401	27.22	72.78
8.....	205	114	91	648	140	508	853	254	599	29.78	70.22
9.....	51	34	17	248	67	181	299	101	198	33.80	66.20
10.....	208	103	105	868	139	729	1,076	242	834	22.49	77.51
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,440	826	614	5,098	1,039	4,059	6,538	1,865	4,673	28.52	71.48

TABLE L.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat III, sprayed April 7 and June 17, being first and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	74	25	49	439	56	383	513	81	432	15.79	84.21
2.....	49	17	32	377	36	341	426	53	373	12.44	87.56
3.....	116	44	72	842	45	797	958	89	869	9.29	90.71
4.....	40	13	27	336	26	310	376	39	337	10.37	89.63
5.....	74	18	56	533	34	499	607	52	555	8.57	91.43
6.....	88	43	45	503	67	436	591	110	481	18.44	81.56
7.....	127	59	68	924	127	797	1,051	186	865	17.70	82.30
8.....	164	44	110	608	91	517	762	135	627	17.72	82.28
9.....	89	41	48	595	52	543	684	93	591	13.60	86.40
10.....	54	20	34	359	41	318	413	61	352	14.77	85.23
Total, trees 1-10.....	865	324	541	5,516	575	4,941	6,381	899	5,482	14.09	85.91

TABLE LI.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat IV, unsprayed check, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	372	370	2	169	158	11	541	528	13	97.60	2.40
2.....	203	199	4	120	118	2	323	317	6	98.14	1.86
3.....	433	420	13	151	136	15	584	556	28	95.21	4.79
4.....	178	171	7	239	227	12	417	398	19	95.44	4.56
5.....	391	386	5	348	326	22	739	712	27	96.35	3.65
6.....	255	248	7	246	228	18	501	476	25	95.01	4.99
7.....	505	496	9	214	195	19	719	691	28	96.11	3.89
8.....	195	193	2	110	107	3	305	300	5	98.36	1.64
9.....	562	533	29	289	255	34	851	788	63	92.60	7.40
10.....	487	481	6	474	404	70	961	885	76	92.90	7.10
Total, trees 1-10.....	3,581	3,497	84	2,360	2,154	206	5,941	5,651	290	95.12	4.88

RESULTS.

The fruit from the 10 trees of the unsprayed check block was 95.12 per cent wormy and only 4.88 per cent were free from worms. Plat I (Table XLVIII) was sprayed three times and had only 5.80 per cent wormy fruit, with 94.20 per cent free from worms, giving a difference of 88.40 per cent in the amount of fruit free from worms from the two plats. Plat II (Table XLIX), which received the second and third applications (with the first spraying omitted, as given Plat I), showed 28.52 per cent wormy fruit and 71.48 per cent free from worms, as against 14.09 per cent wormy fruit and 85.91 per cent fruit free from worms for Plat III (Table L), which received the first and third applications, with the second spraying as given Plat I.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

There are practically two full broods of larvæ in the pear-growing districts of the interior counties of California. Comparatively few of the first-brood larvæ go over the winter.

The number of first-brood larvæ being relatively small, the injury is not so noticeable, and many growers overlook the importance of destroying this brood of worms to prevent the greater damage by the more important second-brood larvæ, which begin to enter the fruit just prior to the first picking.

The first-brood larvæ begin entering the fruit about a month after most of the petals have fallen, though this time may vary somewhat with the season. All spraying for the first brood should be done within three to four weeks after the blossoms are off the trees. Two applications for this brood reduced the worms for the season from 9.62 to 18 per cent lower than the plats sprayed once.

Two, and preferably three, treatments are advised, using arsenate of lead at the rate of 4 pounds to each 100 gallons of water. The first application should be made as soon as most of the petals have fallen, and especial pains should be taken as nearly as possible to fill each calyx cup with the poison. A tower platform of the type shown in Plate III is very advantageous, because at this time many buds are pointing upward. The trees should be drenched. The second treatment should come three to five weeks after the falling of the petals. The third application should be given nine or ten weeks after the falling of the blossoms, or about two weeks before the first picking begins. If only two treatments can be given, the first and second of the above schedule should be given.



PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

VINEYARD SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST THE ROSE-
CHAFER IN THE LAKE ERIE VALLEY.

By FRED JOHNSON.

Agent and Expert.

INTRODUCTION.

The rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus* Fab.), in most of the grape-producing sections of the eastern United States, is a vineyard pest of long standing. It has been the subject of experimentation by numerous entomologists and horticulturists, who have employed against it at some time or other almost every insecticidal substance and method of combat in the whole category of insect remedies. In spite of all this experimental work, however, there is considerable skepticism among both vineyardists and entomologists regarding the complete success of poison-spray applications when the beetles are present upon the vines in large numbers. The results of vineyard experiments against this pest with a poison spray, undertaken by the Bureau of Entomology in the Lake Erie Valley during the season of 1910, have proved highly encouraging, although by no means final. It is intended to verify this work during the coming season in the hope that the efficiency of the poison-spray method may be put to the severest test.

Some of the chief factors militating against the obtaining of decisive comparative data from sprayed and unsprayed portions of vineyards is the irregularity of infestation by the insect. This difficulty is increased by the fact that in order to secure best results from poison-spray applications it is very desirable that the poison be applied as soon as the first beetles appear in order that their first meal may consist of poisoned blossom-buds or foliage. Hence, unless one has an intimate knowledge of the direction from which the beetles invade the vineyard or the portions most heavily infested it is exceedingly difficult to lay out plats which will give an accurate comparison of the results of a spray treatment.

HABITS OF THE ADULT.

About the middle of June, just before the blossom-buds of the grape break into full bloom (fig. 16), the adult rose-chafers commence to appear upon the vines. They at once proceed to attack the blossom clusters and injure the unexpanded blossom-buds by cutting a hole through the side of the bud and eating out or injuring the small ovary. (See fig. 17.) Since the blossom-buds are quite small, a single beetle will destroy a large number of blossoms, and if the beetles are at all numerous almost the entire crop may be destroyed. Sometimes in badly infested vineyards the blossom clusters will be swarming with a squirming mass of beetles (fig.



FIG. 16.—Condition of the grape blossom-buds at the time the rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus*) first appears, and when the first poison spray should be applied. Enlarged. (Original.)



FIG. 17.—Work of the rose-chaffer: *a*, Injury to grape blossom-buds by feeding of rose-chaffer; *b*, injury to the ovary resulting in the destruction of the berry. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

18, *f*) and the whole cluster will be quickly reduced to a frayed and blackened mass of broken and injured blossom-buds. Our observations lead us to believe that by far the greater percentage of injury to the grape crop is done previous to the opening of the blossom-buds and to a less extent while the grapes are actually in bloom and for a few days succeeding the blooming period. (See fig. 19.) Later, when the injured blossom-buds and berries have dropped,

a very ragged fruit cluster is the result. (See figs. 20-21.) By the time the berries have attained the size of buckshot, or even smaller, the danger has practically passed. This danger period covers about three weeks, dating from about June 13 to July 5. It is, however, from about June 15 to 25 that the beetles appear in maximum numbers in the Lake Erie Valley, swarming into vineyards planted on light sandy soil from adjacent and rough sod lands and doing an immense amount of damage in a very short period. It is in the sandy soils of these pastures and rough sod lands along the lake shore that the insect breeds. Detached vineyards with general farm



FIG. 18.—The rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus*): *a*, Adult or beetle; *b*, larva; *c*, *d*, mouthparts of larva; *e*, pupa; *f*, injury to leaves and blossoms of grape, with beetles at work. *a*, *b*, *e*, Much enlarged; *c*, *d*, more enlarged; *f*, slightly reduced. (From Marlatt.)

lands intervening are much more likely to suffer from serious infestation than where the vineyards are continuous and practically all of the soil is under clean cultivation. Thus there is an area in the township of North East, Pa., about 2 or 3 miles in length, lying parallel with the lake shore, where the soil is of a light gravel-and-sand composition, which in former years was badly infested by rose-chafers. Within the past few years practically all of the general farm lands of this area have been broken up and planted to vineyards. These vineyards are now subject to clean culture, with the result that there has been no serious invasion by this pest over this area for several seasons.

Just beyond this strip of continuous vineyard, however, toward Moorheadville, Pa., the vineyards are more scattered and the acreage surrounding them is devoted to the more general forage crops, such as grass, rye, corn, and other grains, together with considerable areas of unbroken pastures and woodlots. These scattered vineyards have always been menaced by the invasions of this pest from their adjacent breeding grounds and serious injury has frequently resulted to the grape crop.

The prevalence of the rose-chaffer over this latter section has done much to discourage the planting of new vineyards, the general impression being that the insect can not be successfully or economically controlled. Handpicking the beetles has heretofore been the only control method employed, and has proved not only tedious and expensive, but only partially effective. It was upon vineyards in this "rose-bug"¹ infested area along the lake shore that the spraying experiments of the season of 1910 were undertaken.

HABITS OF THE LARVA.

The larval stage of the insect (fig. 18, *b*) is spent under ground, usually among the roots of grains and grasses. The female beetle (fig. 18, *a*) burrows into the sandy soil and deposits her eggs singly in small cells in the sides of the burrow. These burrows

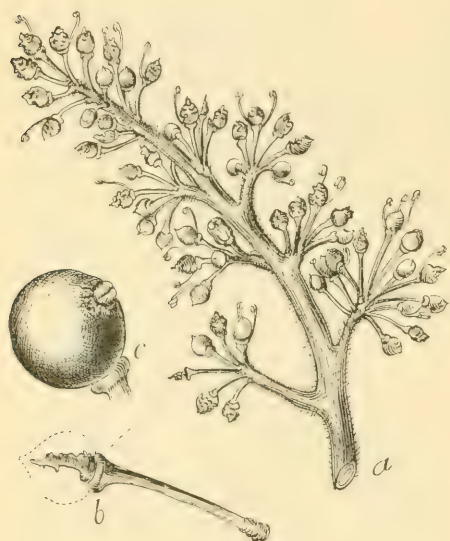


FIG. 19.—Work of the rose-chaffer: *a*, Cluster showing small berries of grape injured by feeding of rose-chaffer; *b*, berry almost eaten; *c*, large berry slightly injured when small, showing seed protruding. (Original.)

may be from 1 to 6 inches in depth, and the eggs are deposited irregularly in small cells in the walls of the burrow, the shallowest about one-fourth of an inch from the surface, the deepest about 4 inches below. The newly hatched larvæ may exist for some time on decayed vegetation in the soil, but they soon attack the roots of grasses and other plants, and are seldom found in large numbers in soil receiving clean culture. They are, however, quite common in ill-kept sod-covered vineyards, and in digging about the roots of grapevines for other insects single specimens of rose-chaffer larvæ are found occa-

¹ A local name for the rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus* Fab.).

sionally in well-tilled vineyards, although never in sufficient numbers to become a menace to the grape crop. The larvæ usually attain their full growth by late fall and at the approach of cold weather burrow down below the frost line, returning, in the following spring, to near the surface of the soil, where they make earthen cells, in which they transform to pupæ (fig. 18, *c*) and then to the



FIG. 20.—Grape cluster showing almost total destruction of berries through feeding of rose-chaffer. (Original.)

adult beetles. These beetles emerge just before the blossom clusters of grapes are ready to break into full bloom.

REMEDIAL MEASURES.

HANDPICKING THE BEETLES.

The practice most commonly employed for the control of this pest in the past has been to handpick the beetles when they appear upon the vines. Since they are quite sluggish and cling somewhat tena-

ciously to the blossom clusters large numbers of them can be destroyed in this manner. This method of control, however, necessitates that they be collected daily for a period of two or three weeks or as long as they are at all numerous. Where large areas are to be covered, handpicking becomes expensive and involves a great deal of time, and



FIG. 21.—Grape cluster from which berries injured by rose-chaffer have fallen. (Original.)

in addition to this many of the beetles are not removed from the vines until they have accomplished more or less injury.

SPRAYING WITH ARSENICALS.

Since the spraying of grapevines for other insect pests, such as the grape rootworm and the grape-berry moth, has been shown to be effective and has become a common practice, increased effort has been

made to control the rose-chaffer by the same means and more or less experimentation along this line has taken place.

Cage experiments with arsenical poisons against the beetles seemed to indicate that a large amount of arsenic was necessary to kill them. At a date previous to the general use of arsenate of lead heavy applications of arsenicals in some instances resulted in serious injury to the foliage of grapevines. This injury was caused by heavy applications of London purple, Paris green, and arsenite of lime, which are some of the more caustic forms of arsenicals. With the placing upon the market of reliable and properly-made brands of arsenate of lead, however, an arsenical is now available which can be used in large amounts without injury to the foliage of the vine. Hence there is now practically no danger of injury by arsenical burning, and in addition to this the arsenate of lead has a much greater adhesive quality than the other arsenicals previously mentioned, thus rendering its poisoning effect of longer duration.

In the field experiments against this pest during the past season, arsenate of lead was used in combination with Bordeaux mixture and in most instances at a strength of 5 pounds of arsenate of lead to 50 gallons of the spray liquid.

Experiments were undertaken in three vineyards covering 4 acres of grapevines on the farm of Page Bros., at North East, Pa., 4 acres on a vineyard owned by the Prospect Park Fruit Farms Co., and 3 acres on the farm of Mr. C. F. Hirt. Since this pest breeds outside the vineyards it is well-nigh impossible to predict, beforehand, either the extent of the infestation or the portions of the vineyard most likely to be infested, although the latter condition may be determined to some extent by close observations of local conditions over several seasons, and since it is desirable that the first feeding of the invading beetles shall be upon poisoned blossom-buds and foliage this necessitates the application of the first spray on or about the time the first beetles appear. Thus at the time of selecting a vineyard for experimental work the extent of infestation likely to occur during the season is quite problematical. The only thing to be done is to select vineyards reputed to suffer annually from invasions by this pest. In two of the experiments, those in the vineyard of Page Bros. and of Mr. C. F. Hirt, the first application was made before the grape blossom-buds had opened and before the beetles appeared.

The plat arrangement in the Page vineyard was as follows:

Rows.	Bordeaux mixture.	Arsenate of lead.	Molasses.	Water.
		<i>Pounds.</i>		
8	Lime, 3 pounds.....	5	1 gallon.....	50 gallons.
12	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	5	1 gallon.....	50 gallons.
4	Check.....			
16	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	5	None.....	50 gallons.

Two applications were made; the first on June 17, before the beetles appeared, and the second on June 23. Infestation on the vineyard proved to be rather light, and only on the ends of the rows on the west side of the vineyards which adjoined lands given over to the production of grain crops were the beetles at all numerous. Hence there was not a very marked difference between the amount of injury on the sprayed and the check plats, with the exception of a few vines on the ends of the rows where the infestation was heaviest. Here the clusters on the untreated vines were quite ragged as a result of injury by the beetles, whereas upon the treated rows no injury was apparent. In previous years it had always been the custom of the owners of this vineyard to handpick the beetles. This season no handpicking was done. On a near-by vineyard on the same farm, however, where handpicking alone was depended upon, the injury by the beetles was much more in evidence, and the owners were very sorry that they did not resort to arsenical spraying instead of handpicking, and have expressed their intention to rely upon spraying as a means of rose-chafer control in the future.

The vineyard of Mr. C. F. Hirt, in which another experiment was undertaken, is located on sandy soil on the banks of Lake Erie. It is entirely isolated from other vineyards and is adjacent to pastures and general farm lands, and has the reputation of being one of the worst infested vineyards in this rose-chafer infested area. Several years ago the vineyard was practically abandoned on account of the injury done by the rose-chafer. During the past three or four years, however, efforts have been made to control the pest in this vineyard by handpicking; yet in spite of this, beetles wrought considerable injury to the crop. At the opening of the past season the owner was prevailed on to try out the poison-spray method as a means of control, with the understanding that no handpicking was to be done. Accordingly the vineyard, which consists of about 3 acres, was treated in the following manner:

Rows.	Bordeaux mixture.	Arsenate of lead.	Molasses.	Water.
		<i>Pounds.</i>		
10	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	3	None.....	50 gallons.
6	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	3	1 gallon.....	49 gallons.
4	Check.....			
8	None.....	3	None.....	50 gallons.

Three spray applications were made, the first on June 8, before the blossom-buds had opened (see fig. 16) and before any beetles appeared. The object of this application was to thoroughly coat all of the blossom-buds and the new growth of foliage, which was comparatively easy at this date, as the grapevines had not as yet made a very luxuriant growth. The second application was made June 17, when the first beetles appeared upon the vines, and a third on June



INJURY BY ROSE-CHAFER (*MACRODACTYLUS SUBSPINOSUS*) TO FRUIT ON UNSPRAYED GRAPEVINE IN THE VINEYARD OF
MR. C. F. HIRT, AT NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)



THE PROTECTION AFFORDED BY SPRAYING; VINE FROM ROW ADJOINING THE UNSPRAYED VINE SHOWN IN PLATE IV. (ORIGINAL.)



INJURY BY ROSE-CHAFER TO FRUIT ON UNSPRAYED VINE IN THE VINEYARD OF MR. GEORGE COOK, AT NORTH EAST, PA.
(ORIGINAL.)



PROTECTION AFFORDED BY SPRAYING: VINE FROM VINEYARD OF PROSPECT PARK FRUIT FARMS COMPANY, ADJOINING VINEYARD OF MR. GEORGE COOK, NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)

24, which was about the height of the rose-chaffer season in that vicinity.

At no time during the active season did the writer's visits reveal a heavy infestation of beetles upon this vineyard, although the beetles were rather numerous between the dates of June 17 and July 5 in adjoining pasture lands and upon the sumacs growing along the edges of the vineyard. Unfortunately, the check rows ran through that portion of the vineyard which proved to be least infested by the beetles and but slight injury was evident upon them. Portions of two rows on the worst infested side of the vineyard, however, were left unsprayed, and on these untreated vines the crop was practically ruined. Plates IV and V show the fruit clusters on untreated and treated vines in this vineyard from adjoining rows in the worst infested portion of the vineyard.

The result in crop yield for the whole vineyard, which comprises an area of about 3 acres, was far in excess of the yield for preceding years when the handpicking method of control had been employed. The owner stated that in the three preceding years the total annual yield had not exceeded 3 tons of fruit, whereas in the season of 1910, when the average vineyard yield for the grape belt was notably short, this vineyard yielded $5\frac{3}{4}$ tons, an increase over preceding years of $2\frac{3}{4}$ tons.

The spray applications were made with a gasoline-engine vineyard sprayer, using stationary nozzles and carrying a pressure of about 125 pounds, and applying about 100 gallons of liquid per acre.

Only one application was made on the vineyard of the Prospect Park Fruit Farms Co., on their farm located near the vineyard of Page Bros., at North East, Pa. This spray consisted of the Bordeaux mixture made from 3 pounds of lime and 3 pounds of copper sulphate, 5 pounds of arsenate of lead, and 50 gallons of water, and was made June 21, after some injury had been done by the beetles. On account of this injury preceding the spray application it was not expected that the results obtained would be worth recording. Yet as the season advanced the crop of fruit in this vineyard showed a great improvement over that produced in an adjoining untreated vineyard only a few rods distant. Plates VI and VII show vines taken at random from these two vineyards. In the former instance the crop scarcely paid for harvesting; from the latter crop a very good profit was secured.

Still other indications of the value of arsenical sprays in the control of the rose-chaffer have been observed. On the farm of Dr. R. Kelly, at Moorheadville, Pa., is a vineyard which for many years had been badly injured by rose-chafers, and in which handpicking the beetles had been only a partially successful means of control. Three seasons ago at the suggestion of the writer the owner resorted to the arsenical-spray method of control, using 5 pounds of arsenate

of lead to 50 gallons of Bordeaux mixture. The first application was made before the blossom-buds opened, and two later applications were made, applying them at the time of appearance of the beetles in injurious numbers. This method of control has been conducted in this vineyard for three consecutive seasons, and the owner states that he is satisfied with the results that he has obtained and considers it far more effective and less expensive than the hand-picking method of control.

Located at Girard, Pa., is a vineyard of 40 acres, under the management of Mr. M. C. Kibler, which is subject to the attacks of rose-chafers every season. This vineyard was visited on June 23, 1910, at which date about 20 women and girls were engaged in handpicking the beetles from the entire area. The whole vineyard had been gone over daily in this manner for a week previous to our visit, yet there was evidence of considerable injury by the beetles. At this date Mr. George F. Miles, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, was making Bordeaux-mixture applications on several acres for control of the black-rot fungus. Five pounds of arsenate of lead were added to the Bordeaux mixture applied to this area. When the party of women who were handpicking the rose-chafers did the collecting over the sprayed area on the following day, they found only a small number of beetles there as compared with the number found on the unsprayed parts of the vineyard.

THE USE OF SWEETENED ARSENICALS.

In the summer of 1907 it was reported that an arsenical spray that had been sweetened with cheap molasses had proved effective in poisoning the rose-chaffer in the vineyards in Michigan. In September of that year the writer visited Mr. Frank Stainton, at Lawton, Mich., who was reported to have used this sweetened arsenical. In conversation with Mr. Stainton it was discovered that this sweetened arsenical was a proprietary mixture made by a local doctor. Mr. Stainton stated that he received a sample of it rather late in the season and applied some of it to rosebushes infested by the rose-chaffer. The beetles appeared to be attracted to the sweetened poison, eating it in apparent preference to the flowers of the plant, and died shortly after. Upon analysis this sweetened arsenical was found to consist of arsenite of lime and molasses. Mr. Stainton expressed his intention to use sweetened arsenite of lime against the rose-chaffer in his vineyards during the season of 1908. In the spray experiments conducted in the vineyard of Dr. R. Kelly, at Moorheadville, Pa., in 1908, against the rose-chaffer, 1 gallon of molasses was added to 50 gallons of Bordeaux containing arsenite of lime made according to Kedzie's formula (4 ounces of white arsenic to 50 gallons of the above-mentioned sweetened mixture). One gallon of molasses was also added to Bordeaux mixture and arsenate of lead, and in addi-

tion to this a third plat was sprayed with arsenate of lead and Bordeaux containing no molasses. In this work it was not possible to detect that the beetles exhibited a greater preference for the foliage or blossom clusters sprayed with the sweetened arsenical, nor was there evidence of a greater benefit from rose-chaffer protection on the plats sprayed with the sweetened arsenicals as against the plat sprayed with the unsweetened arsenical. Where the arsenite of lime was applied there was evidence of a slight burning of the tender foliage, which was not apparent where the arsenate of lead was used. During the seasons of 1909 and 1910 the writer used, on adjoining plats, molasses and arsenate of lead with the Bordeaux mixture, and also arsenate of lead unsweetened and Bordeaux mixture, employing in both cases 5 pounds of arsenate of lead to 50 gallons of the mixture. In none of these experiments was there detected any decided benefit from the presence of the molasses. Reports are persistently circulated that good results have been secured by the addition of some sweetening substance, either molasses or glucose, and since the rose-chafers feed upon the flowers and nectaries of grapes and other fruits it is reasonable to suppose that the presence of a sweetened substance in the spray would attract them. The increased expense of the molasses is but slight, and it is suggested that the vineyardist using arsenicals in combating the rose-chaffer employ a sweetened arsenical on a portion of his vineyard and compare results with a portion treated with an unsweetened arsenical. Until more data is at hand on this subject the writer, while not wishing to discourage the use of a sweetened arsenical against the rose-chaffer, feels that the results which have come directly under his observation do not appear to justify the recommendation of its general use.

TIME TO MAKE THE SPRAY APPLICATIONS.

In regard to the cost of spray application for the control of this pest, it should be pointed out that the entire cost should not be charged to rose-chaffer control, since it is highly desirable that a spray application be made before the blossom-buds expand against the grape-berry moth (*Polychrosis viteana* Fab.), and also for fungous diseases. The later spraying just after blossoming is also necessary against the grape rootworm (*Fidia citicida* Walsh). No additional spray applications were made on the vineyard of Mr. F. C. Hirt after June 24. Yet there was practically no evidence of feeding by the beetles of the grape rootworm on the treated portion of the vineyard, nor was there any evidence of mildew on these vines, whereas on the untreated check rows there was a large amount of feeding by the grape rootworm beetles, and the clusters of fruit were also very badly mildewed. Hence the evidence secured during the past season indicates that if vineyardists, in regions where the rose-chafers commonly occur in injurious numbers, will resort to a thor-

ough spray application with arsenate of lead and Bordeaux mixture before the blossom-buds of the grape expand (fig. 16), and once or twice during the period when the rose-chafers are most numerous, they can not only prevent serious injury to the crop by this pest, but also control the depredations of several other chewing insects.

CLEANING UP BREEDING PLACES.

In addition to spraying as a means of control for this pest, much good can be done by breaking up pastures and rough sod lands adjacent to vineyards in infested areas. An illustration of this method of control was observed during the past season. In the early summer of 1909 a field of 30 acres of pasture land on the farm of Mr. R. McBroon, at North East, Pa., which is located in the rose-chaffer-infested area along the lake shore, was broken up and planted to vineyard. Large numbers of larvæ and pupæ were found in the sod at the time of plowing. During the summer of 1909, after the vines were planted, the soil was subject to clean culture. During the summer of 1910 numerous examinations of the soil were made in this vineyard in search of larvæ and pupæ, but none was found. Yet in the sod lands adjacent to this vineyard the beetles and larvæ were as numerous as in previous years. Unfortunately, it frequently happens that rough land and pastures adjacent to vineyards are not controlled by the owners of infested vineyards. When such conditions exist it is necessary to resort to direct methods of control, and observations covering several seasons indicate that thorough spray applications with arsenate of lead will prove an effective means of controlling the rose-chaffer in infested vineyards.

SUMMARY.

On account of the limited areas of infestation in any particular vineyard section the rose-chaffer has not received the consideration it deserves as a destructive vineyard pest. In the aggregate its injuries to the grape crop in the grape-producing areas of the United States are very large, and it is hoped that the experimental work now in progress will lead to the adoption of more effective means of control. Since it has become the practice to spray grapevines for the grape-berry moth (*Polychrosis viteana*), and also for fungous diseases at the same time that the adult rose-chafers attack the blossom-buds, every effort should be made by vineyardists to combat this pest at the same time. The experiments conducted by this bureau during the past season indicate that a very thorough application of arsenate of lead when the beetles appear, just before the blossoms open, will reduce its destructiveness to the extent that a profitable crop of fruit can be secured even in vineyard areas where this insect pest abounds in destructive numbers.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER.¹*(Sanninoidea opalescens Hy. Edw.)*By DUDLEY MOULTON,
Formerly Special Agent.

INTRODUCTION.

The California peach borer (*Sanninoidea opalescens* Hy. Edw.; fig. 22) has been the subject of investigation by the Bureau of Entomology since the summer of 1907. The writer, however, had observed its habits and the various methods used in its control for several years previous to that time and vividly recalls spending many hours in his father's orchard digging "borers" from the trees and later applying the protective washes. As a boy he was taught that this practice was quite as necessary in the general scheme of orchard treatment as was pruning or cultivating. This insect has been a menace to fruit growers in the Santa Clara Valley from the very beginning of the fruit-growing industry and the constant care and the disagreeable labor which accompanies the digging of the borers has led many orchardists to become intimately well acquainted with it in the larval or borer condition. (See Pl. VIII.) Many men of their own accord have experimented with various methods of control. Orchardists seldom recognize the adult moths and know little about their habits, although they know the larval stage so well.

The California peach borer derives its common name from its close relationship to the peach borer of the East (*Sanninoidea citiosa* Say), and from the fact that it is primarily an enemy of the peach and other closely related plants. Systematically, the species is closely related to the eastern peach borer, and it is difficult to distinguish the two species by comparing the larval stages alone. The female moth of the eastern form, however, is readily distinguished from the moth of the western species by the presence of conspicuous orange

¹ The present paper gives the results of observations on the California peach borer made by Mr. Moulton while engaged in deciduous fruit insect investigations in the Bureau of Entomology and located at San Jose, Cal.

bands extending across the fourth and fifth abdominal segments, these bands not being present in the western form. The eastern insect has been known as an enemy to peach trees in the Eastern States for almost 200 years, as is evidenced by the numerous accounts which have appeared in horticultural and entomological journals. It is distributed throughout the eastern and middle-western peach-growing sections and undoubtedly has been introduced into California on nursery stock, although it does not yet seem to have become established there. The California and eastern borers choose similar food plants and attack and injure trees in the same ways, and the methods of control are therefore similar. The California borer is apparently a western American form exclusively and a native of the Western States. It is considered a serious pest only in limited areas in the San Francisco Bay district.

The writer endeavors to discuss in this paper what is known of the distribution of the California peach borer, its life history, its food plants, its parasites, and the best known artificial measures of control. He wishes to express his thanks to those of his associates, Messrs. Charles T. Paine and P. R. Jones, who have at different times helped in making the life-history records, and to various orchardists who have furnished trees for the purpose of experiments and who have helped to make the work practical.

DISTRIBUTION AND FOOD PLANTS.

DISTRIBUTION.

The California peach borer has been known to entomologists since 1881, when Henry Edwards collected a few specimens and described the species as *Egeria opalescens*,¹ and since then it has been known variously as *Sanninoidea opalescens* and *S. pacifica* Riley. In his first account of the insect, Henry Edwards told of having collected three male specimens in Virginia City, Nev., and he also had one type female, which had been collected by Morrison and was listed from Colorado. Later, Beutenmüller gave, as the habitat of the species, Oregon, California, and Nevada. Mr. F. X. Williams, formerly of the California State Commission of Horticulture, has collected one specimen at Donner Lake, Nevada County, Cal., at an elevation of 6,000 feet. He has also collected many specimens in flight near Castello, in Shasta County, at an elevation of 2,000 feet. Other collectors of Lepidoptera have also taken it in these same mountainous sections of California. The insect is known as a pest only in the Santa Clara Valley and in Alameda and San Mateo Counties, whose areas lie close around the southern arm of San Francisco Bay.

¹ See description, p. 78.

NATIVE FOOD PLANTS.

Mr. J. G. Grundell, who has been a resident in the mountains above Alma, Santa Clara County, since 1894, has many times collected moths on the wing in the foothills lying above the Santa Clara Valley, and he has furnished the only positive record of the rearing of this species from any native plants. Mr. Grundell was at one time experimenting in his little mountain orchard with cuttings of the western chokecherry (*Cerasus demissa*) as a native grafting stock for cultivated fruit varieties. This plant suckers readily and these suckers were cut and planted to be used as stocks for grafting. Mr. Grundell, by keeping such cuttings as became naturally infested confined in jars, was able at many times to rear adult moths of the California peach borer. The western chokecherry is indigenous to the Sierra Nevada Mountains, middle North Coast Range (Napa Mountains), Oakland Hills, Mount Hamilton Range, and the Santa Cruz Mountains, and it is undoubtedly one of the common native food plants of this insect.

- HISTORY OF FRUIT GROWING IN THE SANTA CLARA VALLEY.

Mr. Grundell says that he has never collected or found the moths in flight in deep woods, but that they seem rather to seek the open or bushy country. He states also that the insect was most easily collected in the hills immediately at the edge of the Santa Clara Valley, and it was here, in the adjoining valley, that the insect first became injurious. The lower foothills and the upper western areas of the Santa Clara Valley were at one time covered with a dense growth of underbrush, which included especially the western chokecherry. Beginning about the year 1880 this land was gradually cleared and planted to orchards. Thus the cultivated varieties displaced some of the insect's native food plants in its native habitat. It was therefore natural for the insect to adapt itself to those cultivated plants which were closely related to the native varieties, and to extend its habitat into the open and adjoining country. The soil and climate are here especially well adapted to the growing of deciduous fruits, such as peaches, apricots, cherries, and plums, and the entire valley is now practically one continuous orchard. The insect attacks all of these species quite freely and here finds ideal conditions in which to live.

LIMITS OF AREAS IN WHICH INJURY OCCURS.

The writer can not understand why an insect which is so widely distributed throughout the western coast States should be so local in its injury in cultivated orchards. The Santa Clara Valley, the areas on either side of San Francisco Bay in Alameda and San Mateo Counties, and small areas near Watsonville, Santa Clara County, are

the only places where the peach borer has become a pest. Other peach, apricot, and plum sections in the Napa, Sonoma, Suisun, and San Joaquin Valleys and on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada Mountains are not troubled at all.

VARIETIES OF CULTIVATED FRUITS ATTACKED; RESISTANT BUDDING AND GRAFTING STOCKS; SOIL CONDITIONS AS BEARING ON INFESTATION.

The peach borer is eminently a root-boring pest, and two factors, therefore—the kind of root stocks upon which the trees are growing, and the nature of the soil—determine largely the amount of damage that the borers will inflict. Peach and apricot stocks are most susceptible to attack, although almond, cherry, apple, and native plums are less so; and the wild plum, known as the Myrobalan or cherry plum (*Prunus cerasifera*) is almost entirely exempt. Myrobalan plum seedlings are imported in great quantities from Europe and they are now recognized as one of the best stocks upon which to graft domestic plums. This stock is especially susceptible to attack only when a tree has been weakened by some cause such as a lack of water or cultivation or when it has been partly killed by “gophers” or other rodents. Almond stocks are more or less resistant if planted in soils suitable to their growth. Borers appear to attack trees more readily when they are planted in soils of a light sandy or gravelly texture. The writer does not believe that newly hatched larvæ can reach the lower crowns or roots more easily in light than in the heavy soils of loam or clay; it appears, rather, that the trees themselves are not so strong and are therefore not so resistant.

DESCRIPTIONS, SEASONAL HISTORY, AND HABITS.

THE EGG.

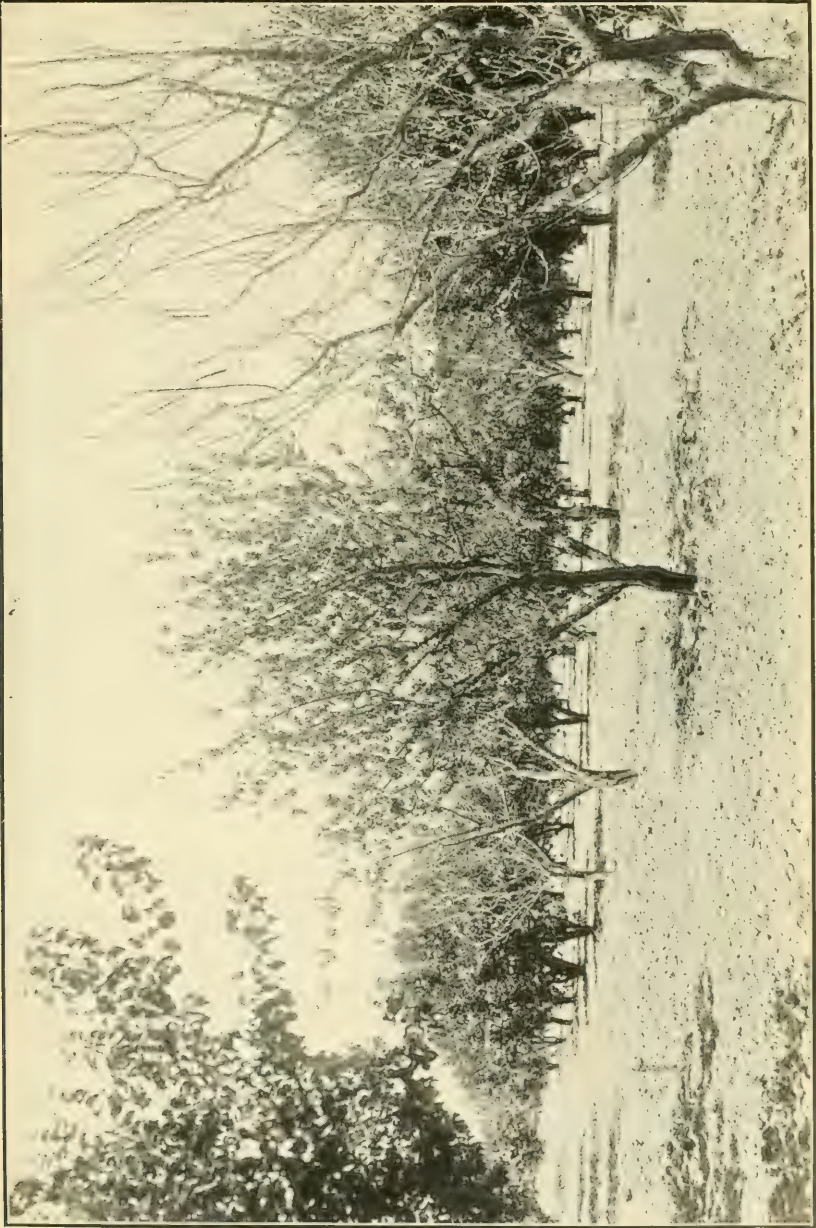
DESCRIPTION.

The egg of the California peach borer measures approximately 0.72 mm. in length and 0.44 mm. in width. It is flattened and depressed on the sides and is depressed at one end. The eggs are chestnut to dark-brown in color and when magnified the outer surface has a stippled and mosaic appearance. The sculpturing so characteristic of the eggs of the eastern peach borer¹ is also apparent on the eggs of the California peach borer (*Sanninoidea opalescens*).

DEVELOPMENT AND HATCHING.

The writer was able to make constant and daily observations on oviposition by moths which were confined in out-of-door rearing cages built over small apricot and peach trees in the back yard of the

¹ Bul. 176, Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta., p. 180.



THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER (*SANNINOIDEA OPALESCENS*). APRICOT ORCHARD, SHOWING TREES INJURED AND KILLED BY THE BORER. (ORIGINAL.)

insectary, and to note the development of the eggs. (See. Pl. IX.) Oviposition under these conditions was more or less unnatural, but the eggs thus placed developed under perfectly normal conditions. The period from oviposition to the time of hatching, as indicated in Table I, lasted from 11 to 19 days, with an average of 14 days. There were several hundred eggs in each lot.

TABLE I.—*Length of egg stage of the California peach borer (Sanninoidea ovaescens).*

Lot No.	Date eggs placed.	Date eggs hatched.	Number of days.
1.....	July 8-9.....	July 27-28.....	19
2.....	July 18.....	July 31.....	13
3.....	July 20.....	Aug. 3.....	14
4.....	July 21-22.....	Aug. 1-4.....	11 to 14
5.....	do.....	Aug. 3-6.....	13 to 15
6.....	July 23-24.....	Aug. 7.....	14 to 15

In escaping, the larva breaks a circular hole through the micropylar or depressed end of the egg and leaves the eggshell attached to the tree. The eggshell remains thus attached throughout the summer and fall until early winter rains dissolve the glue by which they are attached.

FERTILITY.

Many eggs gathered from different rearing cages in our numerous experiments were noted to determine what proportion was fertile, with the results shown in Table II.

TABLE II.—*Proportion of fertile eggs of the California peach borer.*

Lot No.	Fertile eggs hatched.	Sterile eggs not hatched.	Total.	Lot No.	Fertile eggs hatched.	Sterile eggs not hatched.	Total.
1.....	43	3	46	8.....	196	3	199
2.....	42	42	85	9.....	55	0	55
3.....	75	3	78	10.....	292	3	295
4.....	139	15	154				
5.....	71	3	74	Total.....	1,225	116	1,342
6.....	204	44	248	Percentage.....	91.28	8.72	100
7.....	198	0	198				

THE LARVA.

FEEDING HABITS OF NEWLY HATCHED LARVÆ.

The newly hatched larvæ (fig. 22, *a*) are extremely active and move about freely and they may crawl for a considerable distance from the egg. After hatching they immediately seek out protected places, either by hiding in cracks of the bark or under particles of dirt or loose bark, or they go below the surface of the ground and then at once begin to enter the tree.

Newly hatched larvæ were closely observed many times as they entered the bark. We were never able to watch newly hatched

larvæ enter the bark of trees in the open field, but it was commonly observed in a laboratory experiment in which apricot branches were planted in pots of soil. The branches were about one-half inch in diameter and cut in lengths of about 12 inches, and were planted in pots or moist sandy soil. The upper cut ends of the branches were waxed over, while the lower untreated ends were embedded about 4 inches in the sand. Clusters of eggs were placed on the branches several inches above the soil, just as they would normally be found in the field. The larvæ, which were very active, immediately sought suitable places to begin their burrows, which were sometimes started

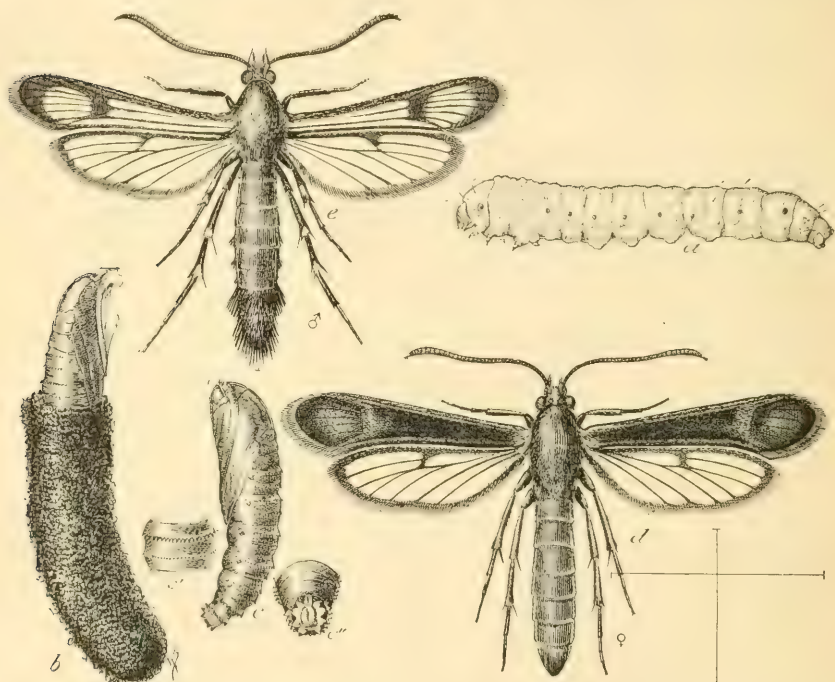


FIG. 22.—The California peach borer (*Sanninoidca opalescens*): a, Larva; b, cocoon and pupal skin; c, pupa; c', abdominal segments of same; c'', caudal end of same; d, adult female; e, adult male. Much enlarged. (Original.)

even under the eggshells; at other times, at a considerable distance from them. Enough of their burrows were made and enough frass ejected within a couple of hours to completely cover their bodies. Always on the second day they would be found well under the bark and to have conspicuous piles of frass above them. They entered any small cracks or irregularities of the bark or where the bark had been injured and where leaves or small twigs had been cut off. They seldom attempted to enter on a clean surface above the ground. Most of the larvæ penetrated the surface of the soil and entered at the lower cut ends. Entering below the surface of the ground is a

characteristic habit of the larva in the open field. Whatever the surrounding conditions they sought protected places first where they could easily penetrate to the tender inner bark. The larvæ in these experiments fed freely after a period of three weeks, when many of them were about one-eighth of an inch in length.

In the open field many larvæ enter the trees through old burrows, thus at once finding protection in the inner bark. Newly hatched larvæ have been kept in vials and fed on apricot leaves for several weeks, and they probably could have been kept much longer if fresh leaves had been properly supplied.

PERIOD WHEN ENTERING TREES.

It is seen in Table V, p. 79, that a few moths begin to fly about the 1st of June, that they are flying in maximum numbers during July and August, and that few are flying during September. Table I, p. 69, shows that the egg period lasts about two weeks, as oviposition begins immediately after the moths emerge. Consequently the larvæ begin to enter the trees during the last half of June, and they enter in maximum numbers during July and August and the first half of September. The last larvæ would be hatching and entering the trees during late September or possibly during early October.

CHARACTER OF INJURY.

Peach-tree borers usually live below the surface of the ground, but under certain conditions and on rare occasions they are to be found attacking the trunks and even the large branches. The silver prune is subject to attack in this way, and frass and the exuding gum are often found on the larger branches several feet above the ground. When a tree becomes completely girdled the worms move upward or downward into the still-living tissues, and many worms in this way may encircle and eat all of the sapwood for from 12 to 16 inches above the surface of the ground. This usually occurs during the spring, when there is a general upward movement and when the worms are preparing to pupate.

NUMBER OF BROODS AND LENGTH OF LARVAL PERIOD, AS SHOWN BY "WORMING" RECORDS.

The long period in which the larvæ are entering the trees results in a great variation in the size of the larvæ at any time of the year. This has led to the belief that there may be more than a single annual brood. Numerous worming records indicate, however, that the insect is strictly single brooded. It often lives less than a year, but seldom longer. Larvæ that hatch in the early spring or summer change to moths early during the following season. Unfavorable conditions will delay a few, which will mature in midsummer or fall, and in this case their life period is longer than twelve months. Larvæ

which hatch during the midsummer or in the fall usually mature during the same period of the following year. If, however, a tree has been weakened or is near to its death, the borers will invariably mature in the early spring or summer, when their life cycle will be much less than the regular twelve months.

Monthly worming records were made during a period of about two years, and although for many reasons these records can not be compared they offer much of interest. The first plan—to mark off a badly infested orchard into uniform plats and to dig all of the worms regularly from month to month on each of these plats—was not entirely satisfactory. The infestation in any orchard is extremely variable. One tree may harbor from 50 to 70 or more larvæ, while those immediately surrounding may be entirely immune. It was necessary, therefore, to find infested trees regardless of the position in the orchard when each record was made, and all worms which were collected on any one date, although they may have been gathered from many trees in various parts of the orchard, constituted the basis for the record for that particular period. Some trees would harbor 1 or 2 and others from 50 to 70 worms. (See Pl. X, fig. 1.) The 1907-8 records were taken mostly from large apricot trees, and those for 1908-9 from apricot, prune, and peach trees.

TABLE III.—Records of larvæ of the California peach borer taken from trees, 1908-9.

Date.	Number of trees examined.	Kind of tree.	Number of larvæ small to half grown.	Number of larvæ half to full grown.	Total number of larvæ.	Number of pupæ.	Number empty pupal cases.	Remarks.
1908.								
May 5		Prune.....			Several	0	0	Prunes on Myrobalan plum root, and not badly infested.
15						Several	0	
18						2	0	
23	19			Many	Many	10	8	Pupæ and empty pupal cases from dead trees; hence very advanced stage of insect.
24	4	Apricot...	7	127	134	19	0	All trees completely girdled; most worms were nearly grown.
26	2	...do.....	0			15	4	Both trees completely girdled.
June 18	10	Peach.....	8	33	41	0	0	
19	12	...do.....	11	75	86	2	0	
20	3	...do.....	9	63	72	14	0	
July 14	2	Apricot*	2	1	3	23	17	Trees almost completely girdled.
20	2	...do.....	0	12	12	10	47	Both trees completely girdled.
Nov. 5	3	...do.....	9	16	25	0	0	
6	6	...do.....	16	46	62	0	0	One tree contained 8 larvæ, 7 of which were in crotches above the ground.
Dec. 8	4	...do.....			113	0	0	
1909.								
Jan. 5	5	...do.....			67	0	0	Larvæ were of all sizes.
Feb. 5	5	...do.....	76	13	89	1	0	Larvæ in this record mostly small; one larva in newly formed cocoon.

TABLE III.—Records of larvæ of the California peach borer taken from trees, 1908-9—Continued.

Date.	Number of trees examined.	Kind of tree.	Number of larvæ small to half grown.	Number of larvæ half to full grown.	Total number of larvæ.	Number of pupæ.	Number empty pupal cases.	Remarks.
1909.								
Feb. 5	5	Apricot			19	0	0	Larvæ of all sizes.
Mar. 4	4	do.			87	0	0	Do.
May 6						1		Larvæ in cocoon; second for the season.
20	9	Peach	0	9	9	1		Old peach trees only slightly attacked; all larvæ in cocoon; third for season.
21	1	Apricot	0	12	12	0	0	All larvæ nearly full grown.
June	4	Several	0	20	20	7	0	Still active larva in just finished cocoon.
	6	2	0	33	33	1	0	
	9	12	0	20	20	5	2	All pupæ and empty pupal cases in nearly dead trees.
	10	20			34	13	2	Larvæ all nearly full grown; 10 pupæ and 2 empty cases from a nearly dead tree.
24	7	Prune	0	20	20	26	0	Prune trees on almond or Myrobalan plum-root stocks, and mostly in good condition.
	10	do.	0	60	60	3	1	
26	10	do.	7	47	54	0	1	Do.
	8	do.	0	76	76	53	Several	
26								Larvæ nearly all full grown; 40 pupæ, 13 larvæ in cocoon, empty pupal cases in nearly dead trees.
	21	Apricot	0	87	87	48	36	Trees about 8 years old, completely girdled; most larvæ in crown from surface of ground to 14 to 16 inches above; 34 pupæ, 19 larvæ in cocoons.
28	10	do.		45	45	51	0	The very few larvæ taken were apparently of the new brood.
	5	do.	Several	20	20	30	16	
22		do.		14	14	2		Four larvæ removed from trees began to spin their cocoons July 30, 1909.

The worming records, so far as they are related to the larval stages, may be summed up as follows:

Newly hatched and very small larvæ were found from early in June to October and November. Half-grown larvæ can be found at any time during the year. Larvæ which are fully grown during the summer usually transform to moths during late summer or fall, while larvæ which are full grown during the fall and winter transform to moths early during the following spring. Larvæ more than half grown to full grown are most numerous during the winter and spring. Larvæ are apparently active throughout the winter and are never entirely dormant.

FEEDING HABITS WITHIN THE BURROW.

There is no regular method of forming a burrow. After the borers have penetrated into the cambium layers, they may move upward or downward or to the side. The burrow may be long and narrow or short and broadened. The larva moves about in its burrow at will and cleans out the frass and exuding gum and ejects it through the outer opening and because of this the opening often becomes a more or less conspicuous tube of such castings. The castings and exuding gum are quite conspicuous and always indicate the presence of worms and show where the burrows are. Where many worms completely girdle a tree there are no individual burrows, and the worms may then be feeding closely together.

THE PUPA.

(Fig. 22, *b*, *c*.)

FORMATION, STRUCTURE, AND POSITION OF COCOON.

The mature larva selects a place to form its cocoon near some kind of an opening where the adult moth can readily escape. This may be near the entrance to the burrow, or near a break in the bark, or if under unbroken bark the worm may eat out a small round exit hole before it goes into the cocoon. Larvæ which are located in the larger roots pupate in the usual way if these roots are near the surface. On May 26, 1908, during the process of worming 6 pupæ were dug out from a root and in this case they were 12 to 15 inches away from the trunk of the tree. Larvæ often move out from the lower roots and also occasionally leave the tree trunk and pupate a few inches below the surface and in the open soil several inches away. On one occasion 7 empty cocoons were found from 1 to 5 inches away from the tree and from 1 to 3 or 4 inches below the surface. Occasionally pupæ may be found 2 feet or more above the ground in the lower branches. On June 10, 1907, 2 pupæ were found in the sun-burned area on a large branch, several feet above the ground.

The cocoon is constructed of chewed particles of bark and wood, excreta, and gum, and bound together by a silken web and lined inside with silk. The completed cocoon is exceedingly tough and strong and rather rigid. The anterior end alone is thin and weak and offers only a little resistance when the mature pupa begins to force its way out. Cocoons which are located in the soil are made of particles of earth, but they, like others, are held together and lined with silken threads. The cocoon is elongate oval in shape and about an inch in length. Female cocoons are larger than those of males, although they, too, are sometimes abnormally small when

they are found in a tree which has been completely girdled and dies prematurely.

A cocoon may be placed with its anterior end directed upward, sideways, or downward, and it usually has a clearly open space in front, so that the pupa will not be hampered in getting out and so that the issuing moth will also find an easy exit. Of 26 empty pupal cases collected on July 20, 1908, from a completely girdled dead tree, 15 were so placed that the emerging moths could escape directly to the open air, but 11 were found under the large expanse of dead bark and could get out only through rather distant openings.

DESCRIPTION OF PUPA.

The late Prof. Slingerland, in his bulletin on the eastern peach-tree borer, states that the male pupa can be readily distinguished from the female by its more slender shape and smaller size and by the double row of spines across the seventh abdominal segment, which bears the last or caudal spiracles. These same sexual differences are also clearly characteristic of the western borer.

The pupa is normally dark-brown in color. It is, however, very light brown when first formed and almost black-brown just before the moth issues. The beaklike anterior tip is strong and sharp and easily cuts through the weak anterior end of the cocoon. In leaving the cocoon the mature pupa hitches itself forward by means of the numerous backwardly directed dorsal spines and forces itself about half way out from the cocoon, and immediately the shell splits along the dorsal side and the moth issues. The posterior end of the pupa remains fastened to the cocoon for an indefinite period after the moth has gone.

LENGTH OF PUPAL PERIOD.

The individual pupation record given in Table IV indicates clearly the length of time required in the several changes during the process of pupation.

TABLE IV.—*Individual pupation records of the California peach borer.*

Number.	Date larva introduced.	Date beginning to spin cocoon.	Date cocoon finished.	Date of changing to pupa.	Date of exit of moth.	Number of days spinning cocoon.	Number of days from finish of cocoon to pupation.	Length of pupal stage.	Number of days from entering cocoon to exit of moth.
1				May 24	July 6			43	
2				June 4	6			32	
3				4	9			35	
4				4	12			38	
5				4	12			38	
6			June 4	8	20		4	42	
7	June 5	June 26	July 6			10			
8				9	12			23	
9				9	12			33	
10	10	26	6			10			
11				10	9			29	
12				10	14			34	
13				10	15			35	
14			June 10	22	21		12	29	
15	24	30	July 9		Aug. 16	10			47
16			June 24	26	2		2	37	
17			24	28	3		4	36	
18			24	29			5		
19	25			28	2			35	
20	25			July 9	11			33	
21	25	July 1	July 6	14		6	8		
22	26	2	6	14		17	8	34	46
23	26	1	6		16	6	8		46
24	26	1	6	14	17	6	8	34	47
25	26	2	6	14	18	5	8	35	47
26	26	1	6			6			
27	26	2	9	17		8	8		
28	26	1	8			8			
29	26	1	6	12		6	6		
30	26	2	6	14		5	8		
31				1	5			35	
32				6	7			32	
33				8	9			32	
34				9	10			32	
35	26	1	6	10	16	6		35	46
36	26	1	6	13	17	6	7	35	47
37	26	1	6	14	18	6	8	35	48
38	26	1	8	20		8	12		
39	26	1	8	14	18	8	6	35	48
40	26	1	6	12	18	6	6	37	48
41	26	1	6	12	16	6	6	35	46
42	26	1	6	12	17	6	6	36	47
43	26	1	6	13	17	6	7	35	47
44	26	1	6	14	18	6	8	35	48
45				June 29	2			34	
46				July 2	4			33	
47				2	5			34	
48				2	6			35	
49				16	10			35	
50	28	1	9	9		9	7		
51	28	1	6	16		6	8		
52	28	1	9	14		9			48
53	28	1	6		18	6	6	36	47
54	28	1	9	12	17	6	5	35	48
55	28	1	6	14	18	6	8	35	48
56	28	1	8	16	23	8	8	38	53
57	28	1	6	16		6	10		
58	28	1	6	24	26	6	18	33	56
59	28	1	6	15		6	9		
60	28	1	6	12	19	6	6	38	49
Total						232	232	1,500	1,007
Average (days)						6.1	7.3	34.88	47.95

The process of spinning the cocoon, as above indicated, occupies about 7 days, and there then follows another period of about a week before pupation is apparent. The larva is inactive during this second period, but wakes up immediately if disturbed or if it is torn from the cocoon. The larva has strength to spin a second cocoon, but in doing so becomes so weakened that it seldom if ever transforms to a moth. The pupal stage occupies a period of about 35 days. The insect is actually in the cocoon from 46 to 56 days.

EARLIEST, MAXIMUM, AND LATEST APPEARANCES OF PUPÆ.

During the season of 1908 the first pupa of the season was found on April 29, but at this time most larvæ were still active and not ready to change to pupæ. On May 15 several cocoons were found which contained quiescent larvæ, but none of them contained pupæ. No empty cocoons had been observed up to this time. Numerous pupæ found on May 23, 24, and 26 indicated that the period of pupation had begun.

Four recently killed trees were examined on May 23 and 26, and besides numerous pupæ 12 empty pupal cases were found. These trees had been completely girdled by numerous borers and had died early in the spring, so that a lack of food had caused the borers to hasten through to maturity. These cases were the first for the year and they indicated that this was the beginning of the period when moths were flying. All of these early individuals which were found in dead trees were undersized and the males were about as large as the females.

During the season of 1909 one quiescent larva in a cocoon was found on February 5 and the first pupa on May 6. On May 19 a second pupa was found. One empty pupal case, the first of the season, was found on the same day; this, again, indicated that the time for flight of the moths was beginning.

Pupæ and empty pupal cases were found frequently during all the summer, but pupæ were found in maximum numbers during June, July, and August. The first or earliest empty pupal cases were always collected from trees that were dead or nearly dead and the cases were usually undersized. The later maturing individuals were always found on healthy trees.

THE ADULT.

(Fig. 27, *d*, *e*.)

HABITS OF NEWLY EMERGED MOTHS.

When a moth has just emerged its wings are soft blackish pads and lie on the surface of the back, but immediately they begin to open out and after 10 or 15 minutes are fully expanded. The moths

are active and jump about in an erratic way and at first are aided only slightly by the partly developed wings. As the wings expand the moth rests for a few minutes until the wing tissues are set, and it then immediately flies away. Newly emerged moths, when confined in rearing cages or jars, buzz and throw themselves against the sides of the cage with comparatively great force.

ORIGINAL DESCRIPTION AND SUBSEQUENT NOTES.

Henry Edwards in 1881 described the adult of the peach-tree borer under the name *Egeria opalescens*.¹ The description is as follows:

Steel blue, the fore wings with the opaque spaces greenish black, the vitreous spaces very opalescent, with a few silvery scales, hind wings with bright opalescent reflection. Fringes of both wings purplish black. Beneath the silvery scales of fore wings are much more numerous, extending over the whole vitreous surface. Head, palpi, and antennæ, deep jet black. Thorax concolorous with fore wings. Abdomen, dark steel blue. The whole of the under surface greenish black, the tibiæ having at their base a tuft of whitish hairs. Spurs whitish, speckled with black.

Exp. wings 28 mm.

3 males, Virginia City, Nevada. (H. E.)

1 female, Colorado (Morrison).

Type: Coll. Hy. Edwards.

Later, Beutenmüller, in his Monograph of the Sesiidæ, changed the name of the insect to *Sanninoidea opalescens*,² and gave the following notes on its description.

Male.—Head, thorax, and abdomen entirely black. Legs black with white tufts. Fore wings transparent with black margins. Transverse mark and outer margin very broad. Hind wings transparent with black border. Underside of wings same as above.

Female.—Head, thorax, abdomen, and legs wholly bronzy black, forewing opaque, bright metallic green black. Hind wings transparent, opalescent, outer margin and fringe blue, or green black. Underside same as above.

Expanse: Male 25-30 mm; female 30-34 mm.

Habitat: Nevada, California, Washington, Oregon.

Types: Two males. Coll. Hy. Edwards, Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. Male and female *S. pacifica*. Coll. U. S. Nat. Mus.

Beutenmüller also adds that *Sanninoidea opalescens* differs from the eastern peach borer, *Sanninoidea exitiosa*,

By having the transverse mark and outer margins of the fore wings of the male much broader. In the female the fore wings are opaque, the hind wings transparent and the abdomen wholly blue or green black.

The striking difference between the two species, however, is that the upper part of segment 4 in the females of *Sanninoidea exitiosa* is orange colored, while the dorsal segments in *Sanninoidea opalescens* are uniformly steel blue-black.

¹ Papilio, vol. 1, no. 10, p. 199, 1881.

² Monograph of the Sesiidæ of America, North of Mexico, vol. 1, Part VI, Mem. Amer. Mus. Nat. Hist., p. 271, 1896.

EARLIEST, MAXIMUM, AND LATEST APPEARANCES OF MOTHS.

The first moth during the season of 1908 was found resting on an apricot leaf near the crotch of a tree on April 16, and on May 15 another was seen in a similar position. On these same days two or three empty cocoons were found, which indicated that other moths had also emerged. The data in Table V indicate the period when moths are flying.

TABLE V.—*Records of emergence of moths of the California peach borer, 1908-9.*

1908 record, Kelly orchard, 35 trees.				1909 record, Henly orchard, 19 trees.			
Date.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Date.	Males.	Females.	Total.
June 6.....	2	1	3	July 1.....	3	0	3
15.....	1	5	6	7.....	3	0	3
23.....	4	2	6	14.....	4	1	5
29.....	9	2	11	21.....	8	6	14
July 5.....	9	1	10	28.....	2	2	4
13.....	9	11	20	Aug. 4.....	1	3	4
20.....	10	10	20	11.....	5	1	6
27.....	8	12	20	18.....	3	8	11
31.....	8	11	19	25.....	7	5	12
Aug. 3.....	6	13	19	Sept. 3.....	3	1	4
10.....	10	10	20	10.....	0	0	0
17.....	0	3	3	17.....	1	1	2
27.....	1	3	4	24.....	0	1	1
Sept. 7.....	0	1	1	30.....	1	0	1
15.....	0	0	0				
Total.....	77	85	162	Total.....	41	29	70

These records of emergence of moths for the two seasons of 1908 and 1909, respectively, were taken from series of wire-mesh traps (Pl. X, fig. 2), which were placed around the lower trunks of apricot trees. During the season of 1908 the records were made in an uncultivated orchard about 3 miles from San Jose. Thirty-five wire cages were placed around as many trees, and the moths which emerged were collected at regular intervals of a week, except that they were collected every two or three days during the period of maximum emergence. The records for the season of 1909 represent moths collected from the cages which had been placed around apricot trees in another orchard.

A perusal of the table indicates that an average of 5 moths emerged from each of the 35 traps during the season of 1908. An average of 8 moths per tree and a maximum of 27 moths from a single tree were recorded during the season of 1909. The record of 1908 shows an emergence of more females than males, and the records of the following year just the opposite. This fact probably has no special significance, since the totals in either case are not sufficiently large to be of value in determining the relative number of either sex. A few moths are thus to be seen flying in April and May and many more during July and the first half of August. A few late individuals appeared during September.

FLIGHT, FEEDING, AND MATING.

The moths for the most part fly within a few feet of the ground and move in an erratic way, dashing from place to place or from tree to tree. Individuals flying into or over the tops of large trees are only rarely seen. Males are often found buzzing and hovering around trap cages in which females are confined. Both sexes are extremely active and hard to catch. Moths are often seen resting on leaves or on trunks of trees.

Moths have never been observed in the act of feeding. Drops of sweetened liquids and honey were placed on apricot leaves in the trap cages, but the moths were never seen even sipping at this.

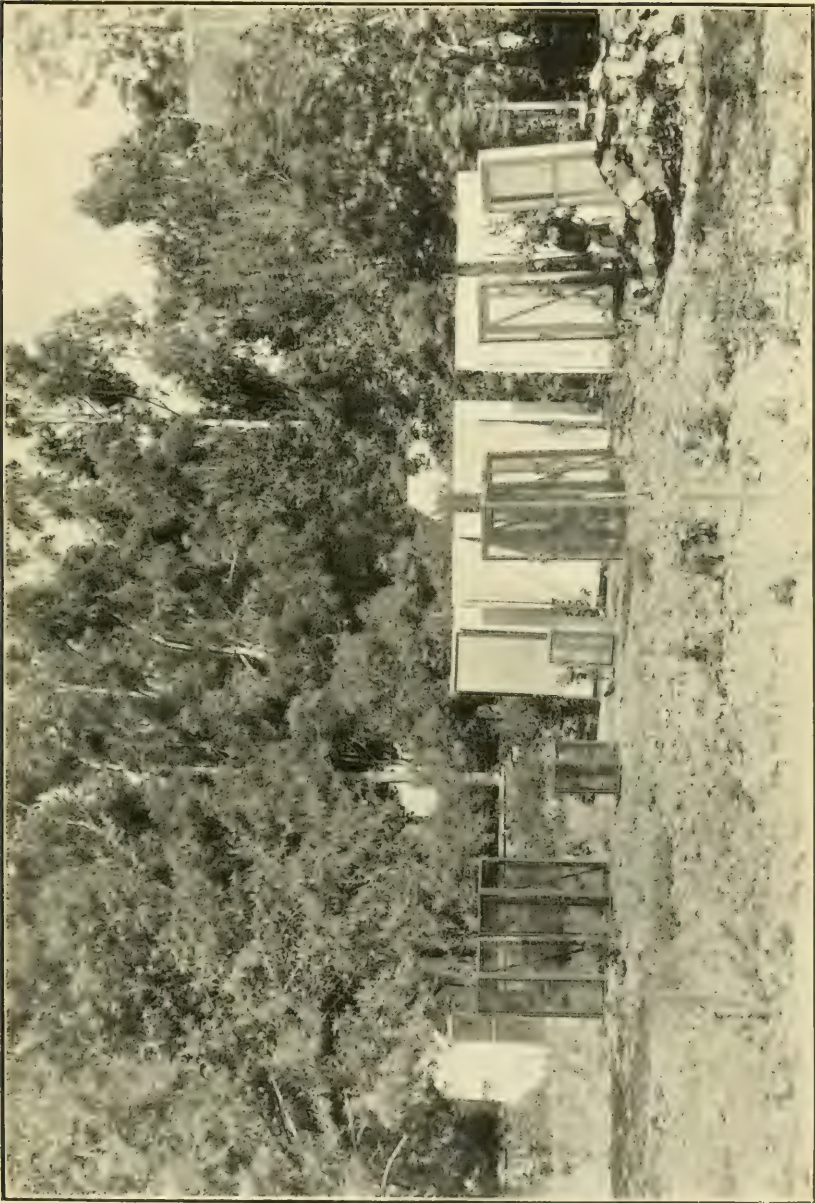
Mating occurs as soon after the moths have emerged as the male and female can come together. Individuals from separate rearing jars only a few minutes after issuing from their cocoons were observed to copulate as soon as they were placed together in the same rearing cage. In one instance a male which was known to have mated a few hours previously was placed in a cage with a newly issued unimpregnated female. Both alighted on the ground and copulation took place immediately—so quickly, in fact, that one could not follow the movements. The individuals remained in copulation 1 hour and 20 minutes. The previous copulation of this male had lasted 1 hour and 17 minutes. Other matings have been observed to last as long as 1 hour and 30 minutes. Copulation was observed many times.

OVIPOSITION.

Female moths begin to place their eggs within a few hours after emerging from the cocoons. They have been observed in rearing cages to mate during the forenoon and to place eggs in the afternoon—never later than the following day. Within two or three days oviposition is completed and the moths die.

The rearing cages for the life-history study of the insect were about 2 feet square and 6 feet high, with wire-mesh cloth on all sides. They were placed over small apricot trees which had been planted for this purpose in the back yard of the insectary. (See Pl. IX.) The moths thus introduced were out of doors, could fly and mate under almost normal conditions, and it was found that oviposition and egg development could be watched easily.

Within the rearing cages the moths placed their eggs at random, on the small trunks, stems, and leaves of the trees, and even on the inside of the cages. Most of the eggs, however, were placed on the underside of the leaves. A moth would fly to a branch and rest on it for a few minutes, and after placing a few eggs would quickly fly away and soon repeat the operation. Eggs were placed sometimes singly, but mostly in groups of from 2 or 3 to 25 or 30 or more. A moth was observed to alight on a leaf, place 2 eggs in about 10 seconds, and then fly away.



THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER. REARING CAGES IN LABORATORY YARD AT SAN JOSE, CAL.; USED IN STUDY OF ITS LIFE HISTORY. (ORIGINAL.)

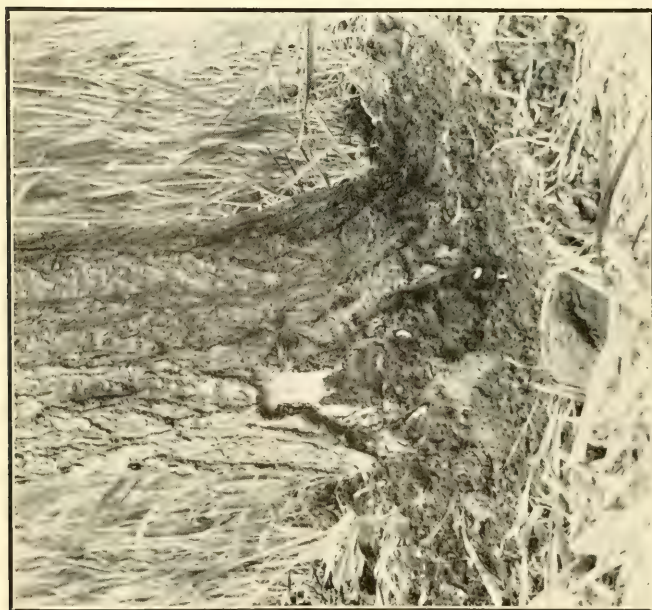


FIG. 1.—BASE OF APRICOT TREE, SHOWING INJURY BY LARVÆ.
(ORIGINAL.)



FIG. 2.—WIRE CAGE, USED IN DETERMINING PERIOD OF
EMERGENCE OF MOTHS, IN PLACE AROUND TREE.
(ORIGINAL.)

THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER.

Numerous records of oviposition by moths which were confined in cages indicate that the favorite place is on the lower surface of the leaves (Table VI).

TABLE VI.—*Oviposition of moths of the California peach borer within the rearing cages.*

Cage No.	Eggs placed on wood of cage.	On branches.	On upper surface of leaves.	On lower surfaces.	Total.
1.....	55	16	14	119	204
2.....		66	49	53	168
3.....			272	474	746
4.....		20	144	40	204
5.....			48	220	268
6.....	55	66		102	223
Total.....	110	168	527	1,008	1,813

Moths flying in the open field always place their eggs on the lower trunk a few inches above the surface of the ground. The eggs are arranged in groups as in the rearing cages. A careful examination of branches and leaves of several trees in a badly infested orchard showed no eggs elsewhere than on the lower trunk, but many groups of eggs were found on individual trees. A moth was once observed to fly and alight on the trunk of an apricot tree about 5 inches from the ground. She soon moved 2 or 3 inches higher and remained there about two minutes, placing about 12 eggs; she then flew rapidly away until she was lost to sight. Thirty other eggs which had been placed at some previous time were also observed near this group. All were within a radius of 2 inches and were grouped in numbers of from 3 to 10. They were not definitely arranged. Clusters of eggs can be found easily on the lower trunks of trees in any badly infested orchard.

The eggs on a single five-year-old apricot tree in the open field (Kelly orchard) were numbered and grouped as follows: 2, 3, 3, 6, 8, 8, 9, 10, 27, and there were about a dozen scattered, singly-placed eggs. All were between 1 and 2 inches above the surface of the ground. On a second tree 44 eggs, all near the surface, were grouped as follows: 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 4, 6, 8, 13. All the eggs on both these trees were hatched when examined (Aug. 10, 1908).

Records of oviposition by individual moths may be listed as follows: 294, 275, 205 (6+199 dissected), and 412. Eight unmated females which were placed in confinement oviposited as follows: 5, 6, 11, 11, 25, 43, 50, 83, and in each case the moth died before the second day.

Table VII, which is a record of oviposition by individual moths, indicates how soon oviposition begins after mating, how long it continues, the number of eggs placed, and the life of the moth. All moths were introduced into the individual cages immediately after they were taken from the trap cages in the field.

TABLE VII.—*Mating and oviposition of the California peach borer.*

Individual No.	Moths introduced into cages.	Mating.	Oviposition begins.	Oviposition completed.	Period of oviposition.	Moth dies.	Life of moth.	Number of eggs deposited.	Un-hatched eggs dissected from body.	Total number of eggs.
	1908.	1908.					<i>Days.</i>			
1	July 17.....	July 17, 9 a. m.	July 18..	(?)	About 3 days.	July 22..	5	136	144	280
2	do.....					July 20 (male). July 22 (female).	3 5	66	482	548
3	do.....	July 17, ¹ 10.50 a. m. to 12.10 p. m.	July 18..						(?)	
4	July 18.....	Not observed	July 20..					305	319	624
5	July 20 (9 male, 9 female).		July 21..			July 22 (6 male, 5 female). July 23 (1 male, 3 female). July 24 (2 male, 1 female).	1 0 0			
6	July 22.....	Not observed	July 23..	July 24..	2 days.....	July 25..	3	204	65	209
7	July 22, noon.	do.....	July 23, 9 a. m.	do.....	do.....	do.....	3	268	123	391
8	July 23.....	do.....	July 24..	July 25..	do.....	do.....	2	168	126	294
9	July 27, noon.	do. ²	July 29..	July 29..	1 day.....	July 29..	2	6	193	199
10	do.....	July 27, 9.30 to 11 a. m.	July 28, 9 a. m.	July 28, noon.	4 hours.....	July 28, noon.	1	92	166	258
11	July 27, 2 p. m.	Not observed	do.....	July 29, 6 p. m.	2 days.....	July 29, 6 p. m.	2	639	98	737
12	Aug. 3, 11.30 a. m.	do.....	Aug. 3, 3 p. m.	Aug. 5, p. m.	3 days.....	Aug. 6..	3	210		
13	do.....	do.....	do.....	Aug. 4, p. m.	2 days.....	Aug. 5..	2	163		
14	Aug. 5, 10.30 a. m.	do.....	Aug. 6..	Aug. 7, p. m.	do.....	Aug. 8..	3	59		
15	Aug. 7, 3 p. m.	do.....	Aug. 8..			Aug. 10..	3	298		
16	Aug. 10.....	Aug. 10, 10.30 a. m. to 12 noon.				Aug. 12..	2	262		
17	do.....	Aug. 10, 10 a. m. to 12 noon.	Aug. 10..	Aug. 14..	5 days.....	Aug. 15..	5	118		

¹ Male had mated previously with another female for 1 hour and 17 minutes.² Many eggs laid, but none hatched.³ Male had mated previously.

Table VII indicates that moths began oviposition a few hours after issuance, or at the latest on the following day. The period of oviposition of a single moth is seldom longer than two or three days, and the moths die immediately thereafter.

LENGTH OF LIFE OF THE MOTHS.

Moths which were kept from mating were found to die without having placed any or at least only a few eggs. Female moths die immediately after oviposition is completed. Males die soon after mating. Oviposition within the rearing cages would begin within a few hours (8 to 10) after mating, and always within 24 hours; it would be completed within 3 or 4 days and none was observed to live longer than 5 days.

NATURAL ENEMIES.

There is a species of ant which has been observed many times to attack adult moths, pulling them to pieces and literally eating them alive. It often happened that a moth would become entangled in the creases of the wire mesh or in the cotton of our trap cages where the traps were bound around the tree. Almost invariably their bodies would soon be torn to pieces by these ants. The ants presumably are not of economic importance in controlling the moth of the borer.

On another occasion a nest of small white mites was taken from the body of a dead moth, as well as a dipterous larva.

METHODS OF CONTROL.

EXPERIMENTS WITH PREVENTIVES.

Six large apricot trees in the insectary yard were treated as follows: The dirt was first dug away from the lower trunks to a depth of 8 or 10 inches, the bark was scraped, the few worms present were removed, and the lime-oil wash was applied over the newly exposed bark and to a height of 16 or 18 inches above the ground. The mixture was swabbed on thickly with a large calcimining brush and was applied on June 25, 1908.

On August 4, 1908, six weeks later, numerous clusters of eggs just ready to hatch were selected from the rearing cages and attached to the treated trees at a height of from about 5 to 10 inches above the ground, where they would normally be placed on untreated trees in the open field. This experiment was made under extremely unnatural conditions, because eggs are apparently never placed directly on any treated surface. It served our purpose, however, which was to determine the number of young that could really penetrate through the wash and get into the tree. The wash was still in a good condition on August 4, when the eggs were attached. Table VIII gives the details of the experiment and the results of examination of trees September 21.

TABLE VIII.—*Details of experiment No. 1 with protective lime-oil wash against the California peach borer.*

Tree No.	Number of eggs placed on tree.	Position of eggs on tree.	Number of eggs hatched.	Date of hatching.	Remarks.
1	46	5 inches above ground on north side of tree.	43	Aug. 12	No sign of borers found.
2	85	do.....	42	do.....	Do.
3	78	do.....	75	do.....	3 empty pupal cases found.
4	154	do.....	139	Aug. 25	No sign of borers.
5	74	2 inches above ground.....	71	do.....	3 empty pupal cases.
6	248	On lower trunk.....	210	Aug. 26	No sign of borers.
	685	Total.....	580		6 moths matured.

Table VIII indicates that a total of 580, or about 80 per cent, of the 685 eggs hatched, but only 6 worms (about 1 per cent) were able to penetrate through the lime-oil wash, enter the trees, and finally mature to moths. Former experiments (see Table II) show a higher percentage of fertile eggs. A great discrepancy between the number of eggs which hatch and the worms which actually are able to enter the trees had been previously noticed. There is also a great mortality of larvæ, as is evidenced by the number of worms which may be found in any tree and the number of moths that may mature later. The almost complete immunity of these trees is not, therefore, attributed entirely to the effectiveness of the lime-oil wash.

Experiment No. 2. The Wilson experiment was planned to determine the danger of injury by applying crude oils directly and in combination with lime to peach trees and also to determine the value of these oils as repellents or barriers against the entrance of borers. Crude oils have been applied directly to various fruit trees by orchardists in the Santa Clara Valley, and their application has proved fairly successful. Occasional injury has been reported. Peach and apricot, and especially the younger trees of these varieties, are very sensitive to oil, and it is believed that there must be more or less injury to other trees. The crude oil is undoubtedly a most effective barrier to keep newly hatched worms from entering the trees, and it also penetrates and draws many more mature worms out to their death. The oils, therefore, have a distinct and decided insecticidal effect against the borers.

The Wilson experiment was arranged in three plats—Plat I, with 10 trees (numbered 1 to 10, inclusive), Plat II, with 5 (numbered 11 to 15), and Plat III, with 10 (numbered 16 to 25). The earth was removed, the borers dug out, and the bark scraped, as in experiment No. 1. The various remedies were applied on June 20, 1908.

Plat I was treated with the lime-oil mixture, which is recommended as formula No. 1. It was applied just as it was used in the previous experiment. Three gallons of the mixture were sufficient to treat the 10 trees.

Plat II was treated with a light grade of pure crude oil known as Coalinga crude oil, 22° Baumé. This was likewise applied with a large brush and in similar way to the lime-oil mixture. One gallon was sufficient to treat these five trees.

Plat III was treated with a heavier grade of oil known as Kern crude oil, or about 14 to 16° Baumé. This oil was cold and heavy and rather hard to apply. Three gallons were sufficient to treat the 10 trees.

The earth was immediately replaced around all of the trees after the treatment.

The trees were examined from time to time, and injury from the oils was soon apparent. Early in October most of the leaves on the trees in plats Nos. 2 and 3 had fallen, and the remainder of the leaves were curled and nearly ready to drop. There was a marked contrast between the oil-treated trees and those which were treated with the lime-oil wash or which were not treated at all. Trees treated with the lime-oil wash were apparently in normal condition. The oil-treated trees again in the spring of the following year were in a weakened condition, and by June 1 trees No. 13 in Plat II and 23 and 25 in Plat III were dead. All trees in Plat I and the adjoining check trees were in normal condition and possessed a bright, healthy, green foliage. It is very evident that peach trees can not be safely treated with crude oil alone, although the lime-oil combination appears altogether safe. The trees in this experiment were examined from time to time to notice any new infestation of the insects, and no worms or pupæ or pupal cases were ever found on any of the treated trees, although numerous worms infested the surrounding check trees.

In addition to the attack which would normally be made by moths living in the open field, several trees were subjected to attack by placing fertile eggs on them as in experiment No. 1. Table IX shows the number of the eggs, where they were placed, and the results of examination of trees June 10, 1909.

TABLE IX.—*Details of experiment No. 2 with protective washes against the California peach borer.*

Plat No.	Tree No.	Number of eggs.	Number hatched.	Date of hatching.	Number matured.	Remarks.
I.....	6	163	150?	1908 Aug. 17	None.	No larvæ, pupæ, or pupal cases taken from any of the treated trees, although infestation was common in adjoining check trees.
	8	41	34	Aug. 12		
II.....	11	144	136	do.....	None.	
III.....	22	225	216	Aug. 13	None.	
Total.....		573	536		None.	

"WORMING" AND APPLYING WASHES IN THE SANTA CLARA VALLEY.

The method of controlling the borer as practiced by orchardists in the Santa Clara Valley is to "worm" the trees by hand during the winter or spring months and later apply a protective wash before the dirt is thrown back. Some orchardists, however, dig the borers out without giving any subsequent treatment. The digging out process is the most important and most effective. The earth is shoveled away from the crown of the tree, the dirt and old bark scalings are scraped off, and the worms are cut out by hand. An ordinary three-fourths-inch wood chisel and a horseshoe knife are

now conceded to be the best tools in use. A combined scraper, chisel, and rounded worming blade has been used extensively, but tools of this kind do not contain the fine quality of steel that is found in other knives and chisels and they soon become dull. The bark is often broken rather than cut when such tools are used, and this works serious injury to the tree. The curved worming blade is especially harmful, because it is forced into the burrow and great pieces of living as well as dead bark are broken off. The tool is convenient because it combines the scraper, chisel, and worming point, but its convenience can not offset the better work of the ordinary chisel and knife.

There are two periods during the winter and the spring months when worming can be done to advantage. Worms are from half to full grown and can be easily seen during the winter. They are more or less dormant, and if cut out at this time the trees will be spared the later injury which would follow their feeding during the spring. It is also more convenient to orchardists to dig for borers at this time because of a freedom from other work. Spring worming is also quite as effective as when this work is done during the fall. A protective wash should be applied after "worming" has been accomplished. Such a wash acts primarily as a repellent and keeps adult moths from placing their eggs on such treated trees. This wash should be applied during the months of May or early June, when moths are beginning to fly. If the wash is applied after worming in the fall it deteriorates and cracks and falls away from the tree before the time when oviposition occurs. It is considered just as good practice to dig the borers during the fall as in the spring, but in any case the wash should again be applied in May or early June. The wash also serves in a secondary way to render the labor of subsequent worming much more easy and rapid. The dirt and bark scalings fall from the washed tree more easily than from those unwashed, and the masses of frass, indicating the presence of borers, are also more easily discovered.

FORMULAS FOR WASHES USED.

The following washes have been used extensively for controlling borers in the Santa Clara Valley and elsewhere:

Formula No. 1.—The lime-crude oil mixture: Place about 50 pounds of rock lime in a barrel and slake with 10 or 15 gallons of warm water; while the lime is boiling, slowly pour in 6 or 8 gallons of heavy crude oil, and stir thoroughly. Add enough water to make the whole a heavy paste. The wash should be applied immediately with a heavy brush.

Formula No. 2.—The lime-sulphur-salt mixture: Place about 25 pounds of rock lime in a barrel and slake with warm water. Add 2 quarts of sulphur and 2 or 3 handfuls of salt while the lime is still boiling. This wash is heavy and is applied with a brush.

Formula No. 3.—Lime, coal tar, and whale-oil soap: Unslaked lime 50 pounds, coal tar $1\frac{1}{2}$ gallons, whale-oil soap 12 pounds. Slake the lime in warm water and add the gas tar while the mixture is boiling; dissolve the soap separately in hot water and add this to the lime solution. Add enough water to make a heavy paste.

THE CARBON BISULPHID TREATMENT.

Carbon bisulphid has been recommended extensively, but its use is now discouraged. Moisture conditions in the soil are so variable that no set rule to determine the amount of liquid which shall be used can be followed, and if the treatment should be preceded by a rain, or if the ground be especially damp, the gas-treated soil can not be left around the tree without immediate injury. The carbon bisulphid method has been more or less successful when an orchardist has done his own work for several years and when he himself places the charge and recognizes the danger. Serious damage is most likely to follow if the remedy is applied by an inexperienced man. Another disadvantage of the carbon bisulphid treatment is that it does not remove the dead or decaying bark above after the cambium layers have been killed by the borers. Hand cutting is never practiced after this treatment, and the tree can never heal its wound as it does when the dead bark is cut away.

METHODS USED AGAINST THE EASTERN PEACH BORER.

Some of the methods of treating the eastern peach borer have been used, but with little success. Paris green and glue washes have nearly always injured the trees. Paris green is not valuable as an insecticide against borers because the larvæ do not take any part of the wash directly into their stomachs. Hydraulic cement has been used for the purpose of placing a hard coating over the bark so the borers can not penetrate through into the tree. It has been used apparently with only negative results. The hard covering of cement cracks easily as the tree expands and offers little or no resistance to the borers. Numerous combinations of rosin and white or green paints have proved of no value, and there usually follows some injury to the trees. "Mounding" as practiced in the Eastern States consists in building up a cone-shaped pile of dirt around the lower trunks. This is done during the early spring or summer, and its object is to force moths to oviposit high up in the crown of the trees. The young larvæ are thus deceived and enter the bark usually high up under this loose soil and are easily exposed when later the mound of dirt is removed. This method is not practiced against the California peach borer, although it might be used with success. Surrounding the tree with paper or other wrappings has been practiced commonly in the East, but not successfully in California. The long, dry California summers, which necessitate constant spring and summer cultivation, tend to lessen the effectiveness of such wrapping or mounding.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

The life habits of the California peach borer may be summed up as follows: Adult moths are flying from June to and including September, and are present in maximum numbers during July and August. As they place their eggs immediately after emerging, the period of oviposition conforms with that of the flight of the moths.

The egg stage lasts about two weeks, so that the period when the newly hatched larvæ are entering the tree is about from the middle of June to the middle of October. The period when they are entering in maximum numbers is from the middle of July to the middle of September. Any repellent or protective wash, therefore, should be applied before the middle of June.

Worming should be practiced during the winter or early spring months, and it is very important that only sharp tools be used. The bark should be cut and not broken from the tree and so far as possible only dead bark should be cut away. The most effective wash that can be used in conjunction with the worming method is considered to be the lime-crude oil formula No. 1. Heavy crude oil is thought to be repellent to the borer moth and acts to draw many of the worms out, but it is extremely injurious to some trees. It is apparently safe when combined with lime. Such preparations as residuum oil, gas tar, or asphaltum can be applied directly to the bark of the tree with only a little danger, but common practice has demonstrated that a combination with lime is almost as efficient and far safer than the crude oil alone.

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PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

NOTES ON THE PEACH AND PLUM SLUG.

(Caliroa [Eriocampoides] amygdalina Rohwer.)

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INTRODUCTION.

On August 7, 1909, the writer's attention was attracted by a peculiar injury to the leaves of a peach tree standing in the yard of the Delta Boll Weevil Laboratory at Tallulah, Madison Parish, La. (See Pl. XI.) This injury consisted in the skeletonizing, with subsequent curling and falling, of the leaves by a small, yellowish-white, sluglike larva, resembling very closely in form the pear slug (*Eriocampoides limacina* Retz.). Investigation showed that most of the peach trees in the neighborhood were more or less severely injured. On August 16 an abundance of small black sawflies was observed alighting on a variety of trees and shrubs, and it was immediately thought that these were the adults of the sluglike larvæ on the peach trees. From the close resemblance of both the larvæ and the adults to those of the pear slug it was at first supposed that the insect in question must be of that species, but comparison of the adults with the description of the pear slug showed differences. Specimens of the adults were therefore sent to Mr. S. A. Rohwer of the Bureau of Entomology, who stated that they belonged to a species new to science. Mr. Rohwer has described the species as *Caliroa* (*Eriocampoides*) *amygdalina*.¹

What is undoubtedly the same species was discussed and figured by Prof. H. A. Morgan, in 1897,² under the name *Caliroa* (*Scandria*) *obsoletum*, and the common name "peach and plum leaf sawfly." His article covers a little more than 3 pages, and embraces notes on the biology and natural enemies of the species and remedial measures.

¹ Entomological News, vol. 22, no. 6, pp. 263-265, figs. 1-6, June, 1911.

² Report of the Entomologist, Bul. 48, 2d ser., La. Agr. Exp. Sta., pp. 142-145, 1897.

Owing to the lateness of the season and the press of other work in the fall of 1909, very little in the way of biological studies of this new species could be accomplished, although several unsuccessful attempts were made to carry the larvæ through to the adult stage.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PEACH AND PLUM SLUG IN 1910.

In the spring of 1910 a careful watch was kept for the insects, and the earliest recorded observation was made on April 1, when two adult sawflies were observed on a peach tree. This is probably very near to the first date of appearance of the species, since careful search did not reveal larvæ until April 7. On this date 6 larvæ one-third grown and 5 eggs were found. Morgan (l. c.) states that the adults may be seen at any time from the middle of March until cold weather. His observations were made at Baton Rouge, La., about 130 miles south of Tallulah, La.

On April 21 several larvæ were taken, feeding on the leaves of a plum tree in the laboratory yard. From this time on, and under generally warm, dry weather conditions, the infestation increased gradually until April 24, when a severe frost killed all but a very few of the immature stages, including all of those directly under observation on the trees. Following the freeze came a long, cold drought, unbroken until May 18 and followed by about a week of daily heavy rains. This, in turn, was followed by more cold weather. From the middle of June until the first week in July there were almost daily heavy rains. This combination of unfavorable weather conditions held the species in check to such an extent that it was difficult to find it in any stage. On July 12, 7 full-grown larvæ and a number of small larvæ were found, the latter probably hatched since the last rain. None between these two stages was observed. After this time frequent observations were made and considerable rearing work done.

While before the freeze of April 24 all of the trees in the laboratory yard had suffered about equally from the depredations of the insects, from this time until about the middle of August the infestation was confined almost entirely to two trees, which stood within a few feet of the north side of the house, and which were further sheltered by a large pear tree and a persimmon tree. For a long time the injury was practically confined to the lower branches close to the house and under the pear and persimmon trees. But as the season advanced and the supply of suitable leaves in those locations failed the infestation spread over these two trees and to the other peach trees and the plum trees in the yard. Whether it is the normal habit of the species to confine its work as closely as possible to its breeding place, or whether the concentration noted was due to the fact that the adults which survived the freeze sought a sheltered location for depositing their eggs, is not quite clear. However, the earlier



PEACH LEAVES, SHOWING WORK OF PEACH AND PLUM SLUG (CALIROA [ERIOCAMPOIDES] AMYGDALINA). (ORIGINAL.)

observations seem to indicate that the females normally infest the lower branches first, gradually going higher and higher as the destruction of the lower leaves progresses.

On September 15 occurred a very hard shower, accompanied by a high wind, that destroyed a large percentage of the larvæ that were on the trees at the time. This constituted another setback from which the species had hardly recovered when cold weather set in.

On October 5 practically all of the accessible foliage of the trees in the yard was examined and no stage of the sawfly found, except 8 eggs. These were all located on one leaf and had apparently all been parasitized.

In the earlier attempts at life-history work great difficulty was experienced on account of the delicacy of the young larvæ and the large death rate among them when transfer by hand from one leaf to another was attempted. In addition to this, it was found impossible to follow a given lot of larvæ through to maturity if left on the tree, because of their habit of moving over considerable areas and their consequent loss. The attempts to curb this tendency resulted only in the death of the larvæ. Also, the adults refused to oviposit under any form of restraint. For these reasons a special method of procedure was adopted and a special rearing cage designed. Many uninfested terminal clusters of leaves were marked with blank string tags. These clusters were examined daily, and

when eggs were found on any of the leaves the infested leaves were marked by clipping the tips and a lot number was placed on the tag, the number corresponding to a card on which notes were recorded. The leaf cluster was then allowed to remain on the tree until just before or just after the hatching of the eggs, when the whole cluster was cut off with a long stem and transferred to the rearing cage. This cage (fig. 23) consisted of a tumbler of sand, into the center of which was thrust a vial and at the side a tube open at both ends. The stem was placed in water in the vial and held upright by a perforated cork. The tube reached well toward the bottom of the tumbler, and was for the purpose of watering the sand without



FIG. 23.—Cage used in rearing the peach and plum slug: *a*, Tumbler; *b*, sand for pupation of the insects; *c*, tube, open at both ends, for moistening sand from bottom; *d*, vial of water for keeping food fresh; *e*, lantern chimney; *f*, cheesecloth cover; *g*, rubber band. Reduced. (Original.)

puddling the surface. Over this was placed a lantern chimney upside down, the top of the chimney just fitting inside the top of the tumbler. A piece of cheesecloth over the open end of the chimney completed the cage.

About two days after hatching the larvæ were transferred to fresh foliage, and thereafter the foliage was changed as often as necessary. Even with this care only a small percentage of the individuals confined were carried through to maturity, and many of the lots were complete failures. However, a great deal of information concerning the life history and habits of the species was obtained.

LIFE HISTORY.

THE ADULT.

The adult sawflies (see fig. 24, *g*) are very active little insects. If one is observed on a leaf it will be seen to run back and forth across the leaf on the upper side, apparently peering over the edge, occasionally stopping for a moment at one of the nectaries at the base of the leaf and sipping the nectar. This sort of food seems to constitute their diet, as, in addition to visiting the peach-leaf nectaries, they were also observed visiting near-by cotton plants for nectar and honeydew, and one was seen on Japanese quince.

The adults first appear in the spring, in the latitude of Tallulah, about the 1st of April and can be found at any time thereafter until cold weather in the fall. Morgan (*loc. cit.*) observed that the adults appeared most abundantly toward the end of each month, and considered this as an indication of the different broods. This tendency was not noticed at Tallulah. Moreover, eggs and larvæ of all sizes could be observed at the same time, and it hardly appears that there would be any such distinctness of broods. During the year there are probably seven generations of the earliest individuals in the latitude of Tallulah, but owing to the confusion resulting from the overlapping of generations, it is impossible to determine the exact number. Six of the seven are summer generations and the seventh is the hibernating generation. Of the latest individuals of each generation there are probably not more than three or four summer broods.

OVIPOSITION.

The act of oviposition was not observed, but from the position of the egg it would seem that the female inserts the ovipositor in the leaf from the upper side, usually close to the midrib or one of the larger veins, and by moving it about from side to side separates the lower epidermis from the other leaf tissues in a space about one and one-half millimeters in diameter and more or less circular in outline. In

the cavity thus formed the egg is placed. (See fig. 24, *a*.) The probability that this is the method of oviposition is supported by the fact that the adult was never observed on the underside of the leaf, but always on the upper side. Moreover, the pear slug, which is closely related to this species, performs the same operation from the underside of the leaf, depositing the egg just beneath the upper epidermis. Morgan (*loc. cit.*) mistook the portion of the lower epidermis, which forms the floor of the nidus, for a "mucilaginous secretion which extends beyond the real egg and produces a much larger surface for attachment." That this idea was erroneous can be easily seen by dissecting the nidus.

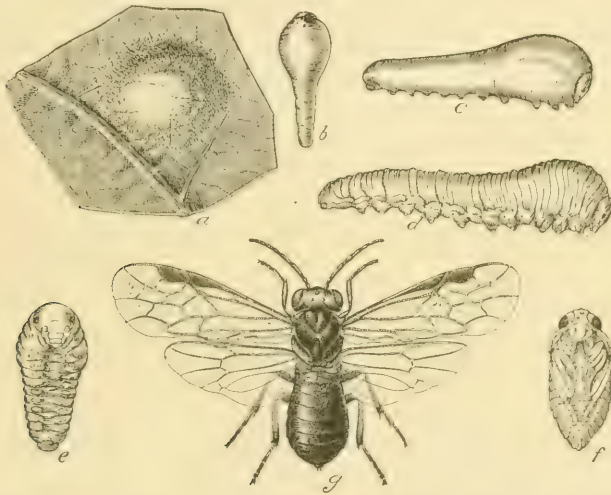


FIG. 24.—Developmental stages of peach and plum slug: *a*, Egg *in situ*; *b*, newly hatched larva; *c*, larva nearly full grown; *d*, larva after last molt, ready to enter ground for pupation; *e*, prepupa; *f*, pupa; *g*, adult. All much enlarged. (Original.)

In selecting a leaf for oviposition the female usually chooses one some distance back from the terminal bud but one which is still tender. The fresh terminal leaves and the oldest tough ones seem to be avoided, although rather tough leaves are preferred to the newest growth.

The number of eggs in a single leaf may vary from 1 to 25. It seems likely that a female, after selecting a suitable leaf, may deposit many eggs in it. This conclusion is strengthened by the fact that on April 9, within 9 days of the first appearance of the adults, and when infested leaves were very scattered, one leaf was found which contained 25 eggs.

In some leaves the location of each egg is indicated on the upper side by a small, reddish-purple spot.

THE EGG.

The egg is transparent white, ovoid, slightly more than one-half a millimeter in its longest diameter, with one side slightly more rounded than the other as in the egg of the pear slug. In eggs in which incubation has continued for some time the developing larva can be easily distinguished.

The incubation period of 74 eggs was determined (see Table I), and it varied from 4 to 6 days, with an average of 4.9 days.

TABLE I.—*Incubation period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of oviposition.	Date of hatching.	Number of individuals.	Incubation period.
				<i>Days.</i>
I3.....	Apr. 14	Apr. 18	1	4.0.
I7.....	Apr. 13	do.....	1	5.0
I10.....	Aug. 10	Aug. 14	6	4.0
I11.....	Aug. 11	Aug. 16	3	5.0
I12.....	do.....	do.....	3	5.0
I13.....	Aug. 12	do.....	1	4.0
		Aug. 17	2	5.0
I14.....	do.....	Aug. 16	1	4.0
		Aug. 17	1	5.0
I15.....	Aug. 14	Aug. 19	22	5.0
I16.....	do.....	do.....	29	5.0
I17.....	Aug. 21	Aug. 27	4	6.0
Total and average.....			74	4.9

THE LARVA.

As is the case with the pear slug, the larva in escaping from the egg cuts a crescent-shaped slit in the wall of its cell. When first hatched (fig. 24, *b*) it is creamy white with the head slightly darker and the eyes and mouth parts brown, and lacks the slimy covering. It has, in addition to the 6 true legs, 7 pairs of prolegs. It begins to feed almost immediately, becoming quickly coated with the secretion, and within half an hour a line of green appears down its whole length, due to the food in the alimentary canal.

The first damage by the larva consists in very small pinholes eaten into the leaf from the underside, all of the tissue being removed except the upper epidermis. As the larva grows and its jaws become stronger the size of the eaten patches increases until they become large blotches. The upper epidermis is, however, never eaten.

The larva grows rapidly (see fig. 24, *c*), molting four times during its growth. The first instar is from less than 2 to 4 days in duration, averaging about 2 days. The second and third instars are of nearly like duration, and the fourth about 3 days in length, the total feeding period being about 9 or 10 days in duration in warm weather. Two individuals were recorded in which the feeding period lasted for 22 days, but these were from a lot which was under observation during

the cold weather of April, and represent the result of abnormal conditions.

Unlike its congener, the pear slug, the larva does not eat its exuvium.

The escape from the exuvium is made through an opening at the head end, the larva simply crawling out of its old skin and leaving it as a narrow line of slime on the surface of the leaf.

Immediately after molting the larvæ very frequently wander away from the leaf on which they have been feeding to another, sometimes 2 or 3 feet distant.

During the first four instars the larva is of a peculiar sluglike appearance, swollen in front and covered with the slimy secretion which hides the segmentation of its body. The head is pale brown and the eye spots darker. The body is translucent and the course of the alimentary canal can be traced by the green food within. On molting for the fourth time, however, it loses its slimy coating and appears as an opaque, yellowish, caterpillar-like larva (fig. 24, *d*), in which the segmentation can be distinctly seen. It is from five-sixteenths to three-eighths of an inch in length.

During the last molt the larva deposits several pellets of excrement within the exuvium.

Tables II to V show the data obtained on the duration of the different larval stages, and Table VI gives the data for the total feeding period.

TABLE II.—*First larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of hatching.	Date of first molt.	Number of individuals.	First larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
II0.....	Aug. 14	Aug. 15	6	1.0
II1.....	Aug. 16	Aug. 17	3	1.0
II2.....	do.....	Aug. 18	3	2.0
II3.....	Sept. 21	Sept. 24	2	3.0
II2.....	Apr. 9	Apr. 11	10	2.0
II6.....	Apr. 13	Apr. 15	5	2.0
II23.....	Aug. 25	Aug. 27	4	2.0
II31.....	Sept. 20	Sept. 24	1	4.0
Total and average.....			34	1.9

TABLE III.—*Second larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of first molt.	Date of second molt.	Number of individuals.	Second larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
II23.....	Sept. 24	Sept. 26	2	2.0
II23.....	Aug. 27	Aug. 29	3	2.0
II29.....	Sept. 20	Sept. 23	7	3.0
	Sept. 21	do.....	20	2.0
II31.....	Sept. 24	Sept. 26	1	2.0
Total and average.....			35	2.2

TABLE IV.—*Third larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of second molt.	Date of third molt.	Number of individuals.	Third larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
I23.....	Sept. 26	Sept. 28	2	2.0
II23.....	Aug. 29	Aug. 31	1	2.0
II27.....	Sept. 23	Sept. 25	5	2.0
		Sept. 26	4	3.0
II29.....	do.....	Sept. 25	16	2.0
II31.....	Sept. 26	Sept. 28	1	2.0
Total and average.....			29	2.1

TABLE V.—*Fourth larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of third molt.	Date of fourth molt.	Number of individuals.	Fourth larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
I10.....	Aug. 20	Aug. 23	1	3.0
II2.....	Aug. 22	Aug. 25	2	3.0
I23.....	Sept. 28	Oct. 1	1	3.0
		Oct. 2	1	4.0
II24.....	Aug. 29	Aug. 31	3	2.0
II27.....	Sept. 25	Sept. 27	1	1.5
	Sept. 26	Sept. 28	1	2.5
		Sept. 29	1	3.5
		Sept. 30	3	4.5
		Oct. 1	2	5.5
II29.....	Sept. 25	Sept. 27	14	2.0
		Sept. 28	1	3.0
II31.....	Sept. 28	Oct. 1	1	3.0
Total and average.....			32	2.8

TABLE VI.—*Total feeding period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of hatching.	Date of fourth molt.	Number of individuals.	Total feeding period.
				<i>Days.</i>
I10.....	Aug. 14	Aug. 23	1	9.0
II2.....	Aug. 16	Aug. 25	2	9.0
I23.....	Sept. 21	Oct. 1	3	10.0
		Oct. 2	4	11.0
II4.....	Apr. 11	May 3	2	122.0
II27.....	Sept. 19	Sept. 27	1	8.0
		Sept. 28	1	9.0
		Sept. 29	1	10.0
		Sept. 30	3	11.0
		Oct. 1	2	12.0
II31.....	Sept. 20	do.....	1	11.0
Total and average.....			21	10.3

¹ These 2 were developing during unusually cold weather for the season and are omitted from the average.

THE PREPUPA.

After molting for the last time the larva crawls or drops to the ground where it voids the entire contents of the alimentary canal, burrows into the soil from one-half an inch to 3 inches, and constructs

an oval cell somewhat less than one-fourth of an inch long in its greatest diameter. If the cell be opened the larva will be seen to have changed its form considerably. (See fig. 24, *e*.) It is now like a mummy of its former self. It is only about half its original size when it entered the soil, has lost the power of locomotion, and is much shriveled. This stage may be called the prepupa. Marlatt¹ terms the corresponding stage of the pear slug the "contracted larva."

In this form the insect remains for a period, depending on the temperature, of from 5 to 7 days before pupation. Some individuals, as in the case of the pear slug, which seem to be set aside to guard against any catastrophe which might exterminate the species, remain in this condition until long after their fellows have matured, before finishing their life cycle. In one case a living prepupa was found 28 days after the latest adult reared from the same lot of larvæ had emerged. When the work was finished, on October 20, after cold weather had set in, all of the cages were examined. In this examination all of the living stages found were in the prepupal condition. From this it appears that the species must hibernate in this form.

THE PUPA.

(Fig. 24, *f*.)

The pupal period varies in duration from 2 to 4 days, according to the temperature. The data on the total quiescent period (i. e., prepupa plus pupa) is shown in Table VII.

TABLE VII.—*Quiescent period of peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La.*

Lot No.	Date of fourth molt.	Date of emergence.	Number of individuals.	Quiescent period.
				<i>Days.</i>
II0.....	Aug. 23.....	Sept. 1.....	1	9.0
II2.....	Aug. 25.....	Sept. 3.....	2	9.0
II4.....	May 3.....	May 12.....	1	9.0
II12.....	May 22-29.....	May 9.....	1	13.5
II14.....	July 18.....	July 26.....	1	8.0
II15.....	July 14-17.....	July 23.....	1	7.5
		July 24.....	1	8.5
II16.....	Aug. 12.....	Aug. 19.....	3	7.0
II17.....	Aug. 14.....	Aug. 22.....	4	8.0
		Aug. 23.....	1	9.0
II18.....	Aug. 18.....	Aug. 25.....	2	7.0
II19.....	Aug. 21.....	Sept. 16.....	1	² 26.0
II20.....	Aug. 23-25.....	Sept. 1.....	2	8.0
		Sept. 3.....	7	10.0
II21.....	Aug. 26-27.....	do.....	2	7.5
		Sept. 4.....	1	8.5
		Sept. 5.....	1	9.5
II26.....	Sept. 10-11.....	Sept. 20.....	1	9.5
		Sept. 22.....	1	11.5
Total and average.....			34	9.0

¹ U. S. Dept. Agr., Div. Ent., Cir. 26, 2d ser., 1897.² This individual held over till the next generation before emerging and is omitted from the average.

TOTAL DEVELOPMENTAL PERIOD.

The total developmental period varies from 20 to 28 or 30 days in the majority of individuals, although in those individuals of each generation which hold over for a time after the normal time of emergence it may be from twice to several times as long as this. This portion of the life history was actually determined for only three individuals. One of these required 22 days and the other two 23 days each. One other was carried through the total period with the exception of the incubation period. Estimating this at 5 days the total developmental period for this individual was 36 days. During the time it was developing, April and May, the weather was very cold and the larval period was 22 days in duration.

EXTENT OF DAMAGE.

So serious a menace is this insect to the peach and plum trees that, in a favorable season, the trees are completely defoliated in August. Morgan figures a plum orchard which was practically defoliated as early as May 22, 1897, when the photograph (Pl. XI) was taken.

In the struggle to repair the damage of the slugs, the trees keep putting out new leaves and forming new wood, which causes them to enter the winter unprepared and less able to withstand freezing. Many of them are thus winter-killed.

Morgan (loc. cit.) quotes a letter from a correspondent in central Louisiana, in which the statement is made that the species "kills an orchard effectually in about two years."

He also makes the following observation: "The attack of this insect upon the American type of plums, such as the Mariana, and the almost entire immunity of the Japanese varieties is very noticeable. Peaches seem worse affected upon the lighter soils of the State."

A heavily infested tree has a very characteristic appearance in the late season, being entirely bare of foliage except at the tips of the twigs, where tufts of new leaves appear.

NATURAL ENEMIES.

Although the nauseous, slimy covering of the larva of this species undoubtedly protects it from many insects and other animals which might otherwise attack it, it is not entirely without natural enemies. Morgan (loc. cit.) mentions two species of mud daubers, which were observed constantly visiting the infested trees and carrying away the larger larva, and records the bordered soldier-bug (*Stiretrus pulchella* [= *anchorago* Fab.]) as feeding on them. He also records having observed a hymenopterous parasite, *Trichogramma minutum*, ovipositing in the eggs of the sawfly. The adults of the parasite appeared in 8 days (May 22 to May 30, 1896).

The latter species was not reared by the writer, but on October 5 8 eggs, from which this parasite had probably emerged, were found. Emergence is through a small round hole a little to one side of the center of the egg.

In addition to the above enemies several specimens of a new species of ichneumon fly were reared from the larvæ at Tallulah. This species has been described by Mr. H. L. Viereck, of the Bureau of Entomology, as *Hyperallus caliroæ*.¹ It is shown, much enlarged, in figure 25.

Specimens of this parasite were reared from larvæ which had been confined in the rearing cages for varying periods before entering the ground. The youngest larva, from which a parasite was reared, was removed from the tree on April 7, when it was about one-third grown. This is, 3 or 4 days from the egg. The parasite emerged 35 days later, on May 12. This period is, however, rather longer than the average, since this individual was developing during the cold weather of April and May. All of the other specimens were reared from larvæ which were nearly full grown at the time they were removed from the tree and placed in cages. From larvæ placed in a cage on April 16, 2 parasites were reared on May 17, a period of 31 days.



FIG. 25.—*Hyperallus caliroæ*, a parasite of the peach and plum slug. Much enlarged. (Original.)

From larvæ placed in a cage on July 12, 2 parasites were reared on August 10, a period of 29 days. An adult of the host emerged on July 26, 15 days before the parasites appeared.

From larvæ taken on August 10, two parasites were reared on September 1, a period of 22 days. Three adult sawflies emerged on August 19, 13 days before the parasites.

From larvæ confined in a cage on August 12, one parasite was reared on September 3 (period, 22 days), one on September 4 (period, 23 days), and one on September 7 (period, 26 days). Adult sawflies were reared from this lot on August 20, 22, and 23, an average of 12.5 days before the first parasite, 13.5 days before the second, and 16.5 days before the last parasite.

From larvæ removed from the tree on August 19, two parasites were reared on September 18, a period of 30 days. The only adult sawfly reared from this lot was one which evidently remained over time as a prepupa and emerged September 16, only two days ahead of the parasite.

¹ Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. 40, p. 189, 1911.

The developmental period of the parasite is somewhat longer normally than that of its host.

The data on the development of the parasite are given in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII.—Data on rearing of *Hyperallus caliroæ*.

Lot No.	Date of confinement of larvæ.	Condition of larvæ when confined.	Date adult sawflies emerged.	Date parasites emerged.	Number of parasites reared.	Period from confinement of larvæ to emergence of parasites.	Period from emergence of sawflies to emergence of parasites.
						Days.	Days.
III.....	Apr. 7	One-third grown..	None.	May 12	1	35.0	
III0.....	Apr. 16	Nearly full grown..	do.	May 17	2	31.0	
III4.....	July 12	do.	July 26	Aug. 10	2	29.0	15.0
III6.....	Aug. 10	do.	Aug. 19	Sept. 1	2	22.0	13.0
III7.....	Aug. 12	do.	Aug. 20	Sept. 3	1	22.0	12.5
			Aug. 22	Sept. 4	1	23.0	13.5
			Aug. 23	Sept. 7	1	26.0	16.5
III9.....	Aug. 19	do.	Sept. 16	Sept. 18	2	30.0	2.0
Total and averages.....					12	27.5	14.1

¹ This sawfly was undoubtedly from a prepupa, which held over beyond the normal time of emergence for the brood, and the figure corresponding to it in the last column is omitted from the average.

The parasite enters the ground in the body of the host and develops within the pupal cell of the latter. When it has entirely consumed its host and is full grown, it makes a very thin, brown, parchment-like cocoon within the pupal cell and changes to the pupal stage, emerging later as a light-brown and yellowish wasplike fly.

This parasite is evidently not very abundant, as none was seen about the trees, and only 13 individuals were reared from the several hundred larvæ of the sawfly confined.

REMEDIES.

Lack of time prevented the writer from making any tests of remedies. Without doubt, however, an arsenical spray, such as arsenate of lead, would very effectively destroy these insects, and this poison is advised when the insects occur in sufficient numbers to warrant treatment. The rapid increase in the spraying of peaches and plums with arsenate of lead in self-boiled lime-sulphur wash for the control of the plum curculio and fungous diseases of the fruit will unquestionably result in keeping the peach and plum slug well reduced in orchards. Its occurrence in injurious numbers is to be looked for largely in small unsprayed home orchards, and the remedial measures indicated should be followed when its presence in undue numbers is noted.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

THE PEACH BUD MITE.

(*Tarsonemus waitei* Banks, MSS.)

By A. L. QUAINANCE,

In Charge of Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTION.

For the past 15 or 20 years nurserymen in the East have complained of a well-defined trouble of peach nursery stock, resulting from injury to the tender terminal bud of the principal shoot. The injury causes the cessation of further upward growth of the shoot and results in the development from the lateral buds of numerous branches, a condition very objectionable in stock of this class where a single vigorous shoot is desired. There have been several references in literature to this trouble, and entomologists are divided as to the cause, though in most instances a minute mite has been noted as associated with it. The mite in question, however, has not heretofore been examined by a specialist in the Acarina and its systematic position and relationships determined. Mr. Banks has recently been able to do this from material which was obtained from a large nursery in the environs of Philadelphia, and submitted to him during September, 1911.

The mite is now identified as *Tarsonemus waitei* Banks.

As the trouble is an important one, it has appeared appropriate to bring together at this time, so far as is possible, the recorded facts concerning it, with remarks on injuries caused by some other species of *Tarsonemus*.

HISTORY.

Prof. M. B. Waite, of the Department of Agriculture, was undoubtedly first to call attention to this affection, upon which he made careful observations a number of years ago. He was able to determine that a mite was the cause of the trouble, and presented the results of his observations before the Biological Society of Washington at its meeting October 23, 1897, under the title "A New Peach and Plum

Disease." An abstract of these remarks, published in *Science*,¹ is as follows:

Mr. M. B. Waite presented a communication on a new peach and plum disease caused by a species of mite attacking and killing the terminal bud of the very young trees. The resulting loss in the value of the trees was considerable, as many thousand trees would be affected in one nursery. A similar disease prevailed in the Japanese quince.

No further reference to this trouble appears to have been published by Prof. Waite. In *Entomological News*,² under the caption "Preliminary notes upon an important peach-tree pest," Prof. W. G. Johnson states:

In September, 1896, while inspecting the nurseries of Maryland, I found many peach trees dwarfed and stunted, and at first glance attributed it to the black peach aphid (*Aphis prunicola* Kalt.). Later inspection proved conclusively that the trouble was not caused by that insect, but by some other creature. A lot of trees were examined in my laboratory and I discovered a minute mite (Phytoptidae) working behind and in the buds. In nearly every instance the terminal bud had been destroyed, thus forcing the laterals. These in turn would grow for a short time and were then killed. As a consequence the trees were crooked, stunted, and not salable, being less than 3 feet in height. They were what I have termed dog-legged trees, on account of their very crooked condition.

Prof. Johnson's note led to some comment by other entomologists, and Prof. F. M. Webster, in the *Entomological News*,³ under the title "The new peach mite in Ohio," reports the finding by Mr. C. W. Mally, in the course of nursery inspection work, of the characteristically injured peach trees, though the depredator was not determined. It is stated that in one very extensive nursery the greater portion of a block of 500,000 young peach trees was more or less affected and the presence of the pest was noted also in another nursery in the same general region.

Prof. P. H. Rolfs in a note, "The new peach mite," in *Entomological News*,⁴ called attention to the distribution of a mite which he erroneously thought to be the one referred to by Messrs. Johnson and Webster, namely, a phytoptid, causing a silvering of peach leaves—a mite which was subsequently described by Banks under the name *Phyllocoptes cornutus* from material from the insectary grounds in Washington. A further confusion is evidenced in a note by Mr. Claude Fuller, in *Entomological News*,⁵ in which attention is called to a silvering of the leaves of deciduous fruit trees as noted by him in South Africa and due to the attack of a very small Phytoptus. This is very probably similar if not identical with *Phyllocoptes cornutus*.

Messrs. Webster and Mally refer briefly to the subject in an article on "Insects of the Year in Ohio," read before the Association of

¹ *Science*, new series, vol. 6, Oct. 23, 1897, p. 707.

² *Ent. News*, vol. 8, Dec., 1898, p. 255.

³ *Ent. News*, vol. 9, Jan., 1899, p. 14.

⁴ *Ent. News*, vol. 9, Mar., 1899, p. 73.

⁵ *Ent. News*, vol. 9, Sept., 1899, p. 207.



THE PEACH BUD MITE (*TARSONEMUS WAITEI*).

Injury about two weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite. The tips of shoots have fallen over and are brown and dry. (Original.)

Economic Entomologists at their eleventh annual meeting, Columbus, Ohio, in August, 1899, and published in Bulletin No. 20 of the then Division of Entomology.¹ The injury to peach nursery stock in Ohio was, however, considered to be due to the plant-bug *Lygus pratensis* L., as no evidence was found of the presence of the mite and the extent of injury had been observed to coincide with the abundance of the plant-bug in the nurseries. Also, as stated by nurserymen, the *Lygus* had been frequently observed at work.

Dr. John B. Smith described a similar injury to peach in New Jersey under the caption "Peach Thrips,"² and figures a block of trees badly injured, and also a block of trees which had been sprayed June 9 with undiluted kerosene. In the peach shoots examined by Dr. Smith nothing was found in the dry ones, whereas in every one that was yet moist from 3 to 5 minute, immature thripids were discovered. Dr. Smith's evident conclusion was that the thrips were responsible for the trouble. Also a letter is quoted by Dr. Smith from Prof. W. B. Alwood to the effect that he had worked on the peach thrips since 1891. He was certain injury was due to a thrips and had determined the insect to be *tritici*.

In a further note by Prof. Johnson in Entomological News³ he calls attention to the symptoms of injury by the peach bud mite, and states that the characteristic silvering of the leaves noted by Rolfs and Fuller had not been noticed by him associated with the new mite in Maryland. On the contrary, trees in the nursery rows affected with the peach bud mite were easily distinguished by their dense green foliage and the bunching of twigs.

In a report of the Virginia State entomologist⁴ Mr. J. L. Phillips treats of this affection at some length under the title "Notes on Thrips, Disbudding Insect, or Stop-back of Peach, as Observed in the Nurseries of Virginia." The author states that many unsightly peach trees growing in nurseries in the State had been noted during the few years previous and that injury appeared to be confined almost entirely to nurseries located in the sandy soils of eastern Virginia, where the trees grow very rapidly when given proper care. Thrips were not observed by Mr. Phillips in sufficient quantity nor in position to fix the responsibility for the disease. On the other hand, mites were found to be very plentiful in the tips of the injured trees in a number of instances, and the conviction was expressed that the trouble was due to them. Experimental evidence on this point was obtained by placing around uninjured seedlings in pots the tops of seedlings showing the affection, with the result that the

¹ Bul. 20, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 72, 1899.

² Twelfth Ann. Rept. N. J. Agr. Coll. Exp. Sta., 1899 (1900), p. 427.

³ Ent. News, vol. 10, May, 1900, p. 471.

⁴ Fifth Rept. Va. State Ent. and Path., pp. 50-61, 1904-05.

uninjured seedlings soon became injured in the same way, yet no thrips were observed on these plants.

ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE.

Concerning losses in Maryland, Mr. Johnson, in the *Entomological News*,¹ states that over 125,000 trees were rendered worthless during 1896 and 1897; and, writing in 1900,² he affirms that the injury still continues about as previously reported, causing dwarfed, crooked, and unsalable trees, and adds:

The extent of the damage, however, this year is not so great as last, as the mite did not appear until after the young trees had made from 2 to 3 feet of growth, while last season the most injury was done when the trees were from 10 inches to 1 foot in height. As a result, a much larger proportion of trees this season are salable. The mites are still active and ruining terminals in many places. On the 9th instant I found eggs of this species behind injured buds in the cavities occupied.

Dr. John B. Smith states (*loc. cit.*) in reference to New Jersey that in almost all of the nurseries which he visited during 1899, a large percentage of the trees showed this affection, and, as already noted, Prof. W. B. Alwood in a letter to Dr. Smith also refers to the prevalence of the trouble in Virginia, as noted by him since 1891.

Concerning the extent of injury in Virginia Mr. Phillips states (*loc. cit.*, p. 52):

No peach trees had formerly been grown in the soil where these observations were made prior to 1903. In that year a large block of peach was grown on one section of the farm, about 400 yards distant from the block under discussion.

The plants grew very rapidly at this place, and were from 1½ to 2 feet high on the 17th of May, at the time this examination was made. In the 8,500 plants examined the injury varied from 10 to 20 per cent, depending upon the local conditions. It was much worse in the slight depressions where water stood for a while after heavy rains.

At this time (May 17), however, the injury had just begun to show plainly. Later in the season it was found that not more than 20 to 30 per cent of the trees had escaped injury in many sections of the field. Less than 20 per cent of the trees were injured in some sections which were located mainly at points where the drainage was good.

A large block of seedling peach, standing about one-half to three-fourths of a mile from the budded stock, and just across the fence from the land that grew peach the year before, was examined June 22. In the section of seedlings nearest to land that stood in peach the previous year (just across the fence) 28 per cent of the plants had been attacked at this date. At another point, about 300 feet from the land that was in peach the previous year, but on a slight knoll where the soil was a little drier, only 14 per cent of the plants were attacked; but in a lower place, about 900 feet distant, 30 per cent of the plants were injured.

At this date (June 22) about 80 per cent of the budded peach had been injured by this trouble in many sections of the field, a much larger percentage than was injured in the seedlings; but as the seedlings were grown and budded on the land the previous year, it is but natural to suppose the injury would be worse in the budded stock.

¹ *Ent. News*, vol. 8, Dec., 1898, p. 225.

² *Ent. News*, vol. 10, May, 1900, p. 471.

Data in regard to height at which injury occurred on the trees.

Number of trees in row.	Number uninjured.	Number injured within 2½ feet of the ground.	Number injured between 2½ and 4 feet above the ground.	Number injured above 4 feet from ground.
182	25	25	41	21
43	9	5	1 29	12
119	64	9	34	20
161	109	6	26	8
225	150	13	24	23
194	123	9	39	29
176	94	14	39	

¹ In this case no distinction was made between those injured at this height and those injured at above 4 feet from the ground.

When the writer examined the nursery, on May 17, quite a number of the trees had already been injured, and the indications are that it began about May 12. The injury occurred at an almost uniform height on the trees for three periods: First, from 1 to 2 feet high, about May 12; second, from 2½ to 3½ feet high, about June 12; third, about 4 feet high. The percentage of trees injured increased with each period, indicating that there must have been several successive broods of the form causing the trouble.

The dividing line between the number injured at 2½ to 4 and above 4 feet was not gauged properly in the latter part of the table; hence the figures in the first line should be considered as much more nearly correct than the others.

Occasional complaints concerning this "stop-back" disease have been received by the Bureau of Entomology during the past several years. Specimens of injured peach trees from a nursery company near York, Pa., were received in 1905, and the damage done was stated to be heavy. During the spring of 1906 a Delaware nurseryman complained of serious loss to peach stock, estimating for the previous season a loss of about \$2,000. The writer visited this nursery in June of the above year, and found the trouble quite prevalent, though, as stated by the owner, not so serious as the year before. In a large nursery in Maryland during the same year the work of the mite was in evidence, occurring quite generally over a large block of budded trees, though not especially serious.

Complaint of this affliction in a large nursery near Philadelphia was received July 27, 1911, through Prof. H. R. Fulton, State College, Pa., with specimens of injured plants. It was stated that there had been a considerable amount of the trouble that year as well as a slight amount the year previous. Mr. J. F. Zimmer, of the writer's office force, visited this nursery August 24-25, and in conference with the owners it was learned that the injury during the year 1911 was estimated at about \$15,000. This nursery was later visited by the writer and the injury was found to be quite serious, as stated, involving a portion of the large block of budded trees, and a small area of injured trees was found in a seedling block. The mite was found in some numbers working on peach, and a few

examples were noted by Mr. Zimmer on an adjoining block of apple of the Jersey Sweet and Early Harvest varieties. The varieties of peach most injured were Crawford's Late, Mountain Rose, and Old Mixon. The varieties Crosby, Stump the World, and Georgia Bell were least injured. The ground planted had been in wheat in 1909 and was planted to peach for the first time in the spring of 1910. The buds used were obtained partly from a bearing orchard, but largely from nursery trees in an adjacent block, but in which no injury had been noted.

A similar outbreak was also reported as occurring in a near-by nursery.

A prominent nursery company in Ohio, writing of this trouble, states, under date of October 30, 1911:

We have been bothered with the thrips in peach trees for 15 or 20 years. This year and last very bad. Some years very little. This year first time ever bothered much on peach seedlings. If we can get peach buds 3 or 4 feet before this pest begins, we can make very good trees.

A Maryland nursery firm gives their experience as follows, under date of October 24, 1911:

We have had lots of trouble and loss caused by the "setback" on peach seedlings and also on peach buds. In 1910 we saw no signs of it, but this year (1911) it caused us a good deal of extra expense. When the trees are stung by this insect in the terminal bud during the summer and when the trees are about 18 to 24 inches tall, it causes them to stop growing in the top and put out a lot of side or lateral branches, and if not attended to they will be worthless. The past summer we kept a gang of men going over our peach blocks and cutting or heading in the side branches in order to throw the growth to the terminal and make them start a second growth. In this way by constant work we got our trees to start to grow and the most of them finally outgrew the trouble. We knew no other remedy than to cut the side branches back 2 or 3 inches. We notice it is much worse in some places even in the same field than others.

Prof. Waite's careful observations, and those of Messrs. Johnson, Phillips, and others, indicate clearly that the *Tarsonemus waiti* is the cause of the so-called "stop-back" affection of peach nursery stock. It may also be true that injury practically identical in effect on the trees is caused by thrips, as stated by Dr. Smith and Prof. Alwood. Young thrips larvæ, principally *Euthrips tritici*, are very commonly found in the tender growing tips of various kinds of vegetation, and are especially common in peach nursery trees. In blocks of trees infested with the mite, the thrips larvæ have been found by the writer in great abundance, but never, so far as could be determined, killing the tips of the shoots. The writer is inclined to the belief that the injury in Ohio, New Jersey, and Virginia (as shown by Phillips) is due to the *Tarsonemus*, its small size, agility, and habits contributing to its oversight.

Any injury to the growing tip of a peach shoot, as by plant-bugs, would naturally produce a similar effect in causing the cessation of growth and the development of lateral shoots, but the comparative



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

Injury several weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite. Note the swollen condition of the injured shoots and the enlarged foliage. At the injured point is a mass of gum and dirt. Enlarged about 2 diameters. (Original.)

scarcity of such insects in injured blocks in the territory under consideration does not warrant their association with the trouble.

During the growing season the mites are to be found here and there on the plants behind the buds, or in cavities and places offering protection, and one or more may usually be found at the injured tip under an adjacent bud or more or less covered by the mass of exuded gum. Injury consists in the puncturing of the tender shoot near the tip, which soon wilts, falls over, and turns brown and dry.

At the injured point gum soon exudes, and the cessation of further growth of the shoot results in its swelling out and in a notable increase in the size of the adjacent leaves, which assume a deep glossy green color. Lateral shoots soon push out, the number and position varying widely, resulting in a crooked or bushy topped tree of but little market value. As stated by one nurseryman, many of the inserted buds which set normally, and were noted to be green and in healthy condition during the fall, winter, and spring, died before starting, or the shoot put out and died soon afterwards. The writer has observed a good deal of this kind of injury, especially where the work of the mites on the trees was later most in evidence, and this injury to the dormant bud may also result from the mites.

The characteristic injury some ten days or two weeks old is shown in Plate XII, somewhat enlarged. It will be noted that the point of injury is adjacent in each case to a leaf, where the mite probably sought protection. The tips of the shoot above the point injured had fallen over and were brown and dry, and in two of the examples the accompanying exudation of gum may be detected.

Some weeks later the injured shoots have the appearance shown in Plate XIII, about twice enlarged. The stem has filled out and there is a considerable mass of blackened gum and dirt on the tip of the injured stem. In the example on the right, a strong lateral shoot has developed. The large, congested leaves are also shown.

On Plates XIV and XV is shown the appearance, in the fall, of trees injured by the mite. As will be seen, the plants, except in one instance, were cut off just below the bud. Most of the specimens show two distinct attacks by the mite, with consequent formation of lateral branches.

As before mentioned, the peach bud mite, in the opinion of one nurseryman—and a careful observer—is responsible for the killing of the bud inserted in the seedling, as it is starting growth in the spring, or after the shoot has pushed out. Plate XVI shows, considerably enlarged, buds injured in this supposed manner.

In some cases the attack of the mite does not cause the death of the shoot, which continues to grow, but at the injured place there develops a characteristic rusty scar of variable size and shape, which in vigorous growing trees may become a long, rusty streak, extending

between the nodes. Smaller rusty scars or pits are often found under the buds occupied by the mites and undoubtedly result from the puncturing of the tender tissue.

The mite infests both seedlings and budded trees and is also common in orchards. The injury to seedlings, which as a rule are budded below the point from which the laterals in most cases develop, is much less important than the injury to the budded stock the season following. Injury in orchards has not thus far been observed to be serious, but the mites are usually common and might be readily introduced in nurseries with budding-wood.

HABITS AND NATURAL HISTORY.

But few observations have been made on the habits of the peach bud mite and further information is very desirable for a proper application of control measures. According to Prof. Waite, as detailed to the writer in conversation, the mites hibernate on the plants behind the bud scales. It is especially important to know if the mite winters exclusively on the dormant nursery trees and if it has other important food plants than the peach. The writer examined in March, 1906, a lot of dormant peach stock from an infested nursery, including several trees badly injured, and only one mite was found hidden in a small cavity in the stem near the base of the tree. December 15, 1911, a lot of 36 1-year peach trees badly injured by the mite were carefully examined, and while two specimens of a gamasid mite were found, no specimens of the peach bud mite were discovered.

The mites appear on the trees quite early in the spring, and by the time the shoots are 18 or 20 inches in height, their injury is much in evidence. As stated by Mr. Phillips for tidewater Virginia, the injury has begun to show plainly by May 17, at which time 10 to 20 per cent of the trees already showed more or less symptoms of attack. Mr. Phillips believed that the injury began as early as May 12, and presents a table showing the proportion of trees injured at different heights from the ground, as already quoted (p. 107). In a Delaware nursery, injury was very common by June 6, the attack beginning apparently two or three weeks earlier. Dr. Smith, speaking of thrips injury in New Jersey, states that it was quite common by June 8, at which date almost 50 per cent of the shoots in nurseries examined had the terminals killed. It is evident, therefore, that the mite begins operations during the latter part of May. Mr. Phillips's observations indicate three different periods of principal injury, which he considers mark as many generations of the mite.

Breeding probably occurs largely on the trees. Mr. Johnson records finding eggs of the mite in cavities behind the injured buds. The writer on different occasions has found the mites of various sizes behind buds, indicating that they had there developed.



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

The condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite. (Original.)

SYSTEMATIC RELATIONSHIPS AND OTHER ECONOMIC SPECIES.

According to Banks¹ the family Tarsonemidae is a small one of much biological and economic importance. There are two subfamilies, Pediculoidinae and Tarsoneminae. These soft-bodied mites resemble also the Tyroglyphidae, though the females differ from these and all other mites in the presence between the legs (pairs 1 and 2) of a prominent clavate organ of uncertain use. Concerning the systematic position of the family there has been considerable doubt among the students of the Acarina and it has not long held any one position. It has been associated with the Oribatida and the Cheyletidae, and, according to Berlese, the family constitutes one of the principal groups of the order.

The subfamily Tarsoneminae includes but two genera, the species differing from those of the other subfamily in that the hind leg of the female ends in a long hair. The two genera, Disparipes and Tarsonemus, are represented by a considerable number of species, and many species of Tarsonemus are of distinct economic importance. *Tarsonemus oryzae* Targ.-Toz. infests the culms of the rice plant in Italy,² and produces the malady described by Negri under the name "bianchella" (bleaching), which is particularly characterized by the presence of numerous very fine threads or fibers thought to be produced by this acarid; this thread-spinning habit is not found, apparently, associated with any other species of the genus thus far known.

An affection of oats in France and Germany caused by *Tarsonemus spirifer* March. has recently been well treated by Dr. Paul Marchal and others.³ The mites inhabit the sheath surrounding the head or panicle of the oat plant, preventing proper development, and causing the stem to assume a distorted spiral shape, which may push out along the side. In other cases the distorted stem is held inclosed in the sheath, which becomes fusiform, and these plants are called "avoines en cigares." The mites appear early in June and the characteristic spirals during the second fortnight of the same month; all stages, as the egg, larva, and both sexes of the adult being found together on the plant. It is not known how this mite passes the winter. Marchal suggests the possibility that it may hibernate in a very resistant condition in the soil, though evidence to the contrary is cited as obtained by M. Guille, who considers it probable that the mites migrate in the fall to adjacent wild grasses. The mite also lives in wheat, barley, and rye, though oats is the preferred food. Excessive dry weather is regarded as favorable to its development.

¹ Proc. U. S. Nat. Museum, vol. 28, p. 74, 1893.

² La malattia della bianchella del riso coltivato. Casale, 1873.

³ L'Acariose des avoines. Annales de l'Institut National Agronomique, 2d ser., tome 6, fasc. 1^{er}, 1907.

Tarsonemus ananas Tryon was determined by Tryon to be the primary cause of a disease of pineapples in southern Queensland.¹ The mite infests the pineapple plant quite generally, as the stem of the fruit, deep between the bases of the leafy bracts, forming the tuft at top of plant, and especially the fruitlets, where, by its puncturing with its styliform mandibles at the base of the cavity containing the essential organs, an injury is produced which may be followed by the invasion of a fungus, resulting in the so-called "fruitlet core rot." The mites are never very abundant and shun the light, inhabiting principally the deeper recesses of the fruit.

Two species of *Tarsonemus* have been reported by Mr. A. D. Michael as injuring sugar cane in Barbados.² One species, which he calls *Tarsonemus bancrofti* Michael, also occurs in sugar cane in Queensland. The mites were exceedingly abundant in all stages on the canes observed by Mr. Michael, living principally under the leaf sheaths. They are thought to be present in other sugar-producing countries, but have thus far escaped notice. The infestation of cane by mites, according to Mr. Bovell, superintendent of Dodds Botanical Garden, reduces the annual yield of sugar from 3 tons to 1 ton per acre.

Another mite, *Tarsonemus culmicolus* Reuter, produces a silver-top disease of grasses in Finland,³ occurring especially on *Phleum pratense*, *Agropyron repens*, and *Festuca rubra*. This species has been well treated by Dr. Enzo Reuter. The mites are present on the grasses from early spring to fall, infesting the interior of the leaf-sheath, living on the tender stem above the highest node. While no deformity results, the extraction of the juice occasions the drying up and death of the inflorescence, which remains filiform and turns white.

Tarsonemus latus Banks was found by Banks in some small mango plants in one of the department greenhouses in Washington.⁴ Some plants had stopped growth, and the mites occurred principally on the swollen and partially discolored tips.

Tarsonemus pallidus Banks was found on a chrysanthemum in a greenhouse near Jamaica Plain, N. Y.⁵

There are numerous other species, but those cited will serve to show the importance from an economic standpoint of this group of small creatures, and adds additional evidence, by reason of its relationship, that our peach bud mite is responsible for the injury to peach herein described.

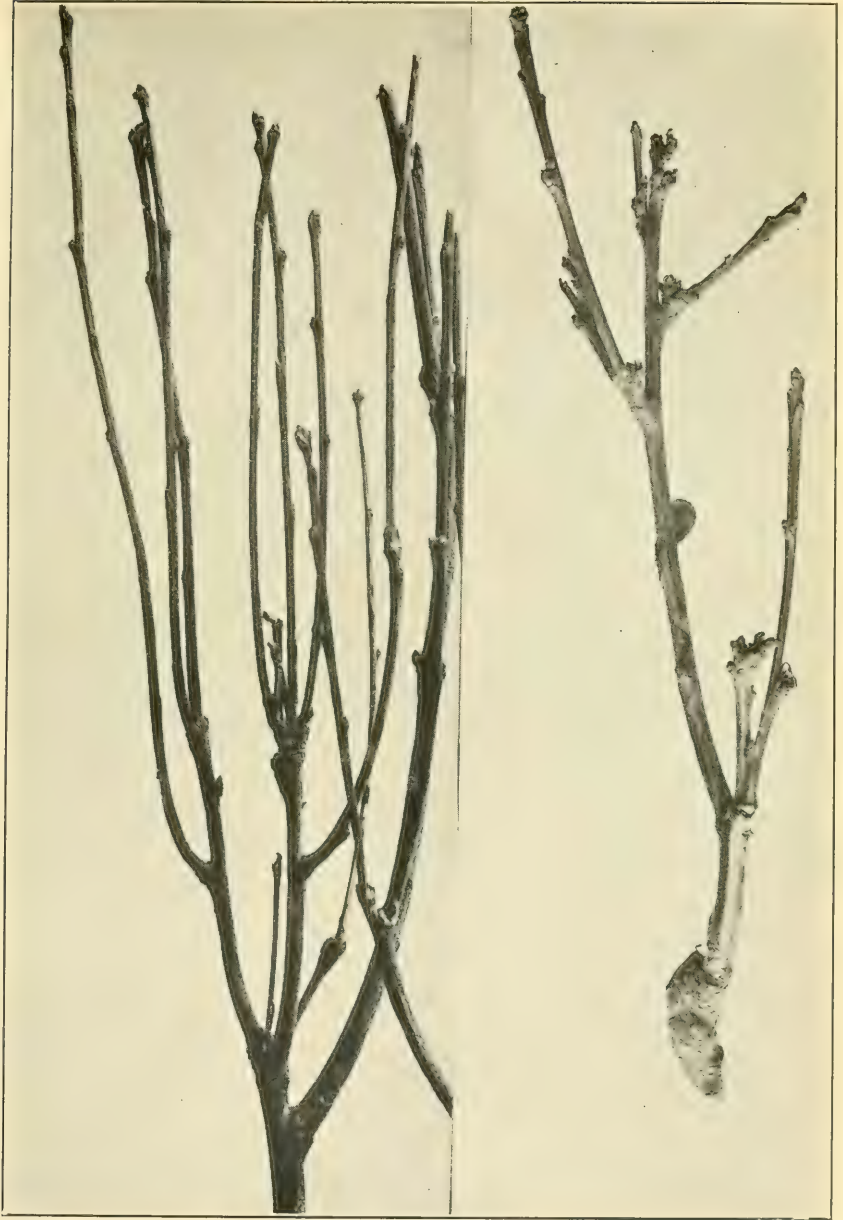
¹ Fruitlet core rot of pineapples. Queensland Agr. Journ., 1898, p. 458.

² Report on diseased sugar cane from Barbados, etc. Bull. Royal Gardens, Kew, 1890, p. 85.

³ Über die Weissähigkeit der Wiesengräser in Finland. Acta Soc. pro Fauna et Flora Fennica, vol. 19, No. 1, 1900, p. 77.

⁴ Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., vol. 12, 1904, p. 55.

⁵ Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., vol. 4, 1898, p. 294.



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

The condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite. The specimen on the right is not over 18 inches high, the specimen on the left shows two distinct periods of attack. (Original.)



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

Injury to buds supposedly due to peach bud mite. These dormant buds were green all winter and were killed in the spring as growth commenced. Enlarged. (Original.)

REMEDIAL CONSIDERATIONS.

There is but little information available bearing on the control of the peach bud mite. Prof. Waite, in conversation, informed the writer that when the trouble was present several years ago in his nurseries, he was able to prevent injury by thoroughly spraying, during the dormant season, the trees subject to injury with lime-sulphur wash. It was not learned, however, whether trees were left untreated for purposes of comparison. The known effectiveness of sulphur, dry or in soluble compounds, against mites in general is ground for the belief that sulphur sprays would be effective in this case. It is uncertain, however, whether the mites winter exclusively on the peach nursery stock. The value of dormant treatments would depend upon the extent to which the mites hibernate on the trees. There is some evidence that they hibernate elsewhere. In the instance of serious injury in the Delaware nursery, earlier mentioned, all of the block of peach stock, save one row, was sprayed with lime-sulphur wash during the spring of 1906 (dormant buds). Examinations by the writer during the following summer did not show any difference between the sprayed and unsprayed trees, and the infestation was uniformly quite prevalent.

It has been the practice for some years of one large nursery firm to spray blocks of their peach trees during the dormant period with a miscible oil used at full winter strength. Notwithstanding this practice the trees have been seriously injured by the mite, and in one large block thus sprayed during the dormant period of the spring of 1910 the mite was especially prevalent in one portion during the summer of 1911. These results suggest that the mites also winter in other places than on the peach trees.

In the experience of Mr. Phillips, already quoted, (p. 106), considerable benefit resulted from prompt attention to pruning the injured plants, so as to correct the trouble as much as possible, by the selection and forcing of one of the best lateral shoots. He treats this question at some length (*loc. cit.*) and his table of results from pruning tests is herewith quoted:

Data in regard to pruning peach trees in the nursery affected by "stop-back."

Varieties.	Total number of trees in row.	Number injured by May 18.	Number pruned May 18.	Number of crooked trees Aug. 15.	Number of injured trees that grew up straight.	Percentage of pruned trees that grew up straight.
Wonderful.....	1,259	147	147	46	101	68
Champion.....	1,010	150	150	49	110	73
do.....	1,130	133	Check.	1 119		
(?).....	160	2 25	2 25	3	22	88

¹ Some time after this row was decided upon as a check, it was learned that one of the laborers had pinched a number of trees at one end. This accounts for there being fewer crooked trees than had been injured May 18.

² June 22.

In this article Mr. Phillips concludes:

We were not able to give enough time to the work to have the trees pruned more than once, but the success of this pruning indicates that the trouble can be prevented almost entirely by judicious pruning. Indiscriminate pruning, by an ordinary laborer, is not, however, likely to produce beneficial results.

This work costs but very little in excess of the regular pruning, as both can be done at the same time.

The first pruning should be done about the middle of June.

In order to make it entirely effective, a second pruning should be given a few weeks after the first.

Where this attack occurs in peach trees that are not growing rapidly, the pruning should be supplemented by a dressing of nitrate of soda to promote growth.

Good drainage will likely prevent the trouble in a large measure.

As stated on page 108, pruning out the laterals from the injured trees, thus forcing one of the more terminal shoots, was followed the past season by a Maryland nursery company with good results. The pruning method would appear to be of considerable benefit, and to a large extent this special work may be combined with the usual necessary prunings required in growing trees of this kind. In locations where the mites are likely to be troublesome a lookout should be kept for their injury to the plants in the spring. The tips of the lateral shoots should be pinched off, except the first strong lateral below the injured point, which it is desired to force ahead as much as possible.

A thorough application of a suitable spray to the infested trees, especially during the period of attack in late spring, should be of decided value, though the writer knows of no actual work of this kind having been done. At this time the mites are on the trees in numbers, and by thorough spraying many of them should be killed. A contact spray such as kerosene emulsion or whale-oil-soap solution should be effective, and especially the self-boiled lime-sulphur wash. Most observers agree that the mite is more prevalent on trees on low situations. While the writer has noted exceptions to this condition, it seems for the most part to be true. Planting trees on higher situations where the soil is well drained would perhaps be advantageous in localities where the mite has come to be quite troublesome.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

THE GRAPE SCALE.*(Aspidiotus [Diaspidiotus] uvæ Comst.)*By JAMES F. ZIMMER,
Entomological Assistant.

INTRODUCTION.

The grape scale, *Aspidiotus (Diaspidiotus) uvæ* Comstock, has been reported as more or less destructive to grapevines during the last three decades. The insect occurs, to a very limited extent, on certain forest and shade trees, though the records do not show serious injury to plants other than the grape.

Apparently the earliest record of this species is to be found in the notes of the Bureau of Entomology. Under date of November 12, 1875, from St. Louis, Mo., Mr. Theodore Pergande forwarded specimens of the grape scale to the Entomologist of the Department of Agriculture. This insect was later found at Vevay, Ind., as stated by Prof. F. M. Webster,¹ by Mr. C. G. Boerner, though no date is given. This material was used by Prof. Comstock in the preparation of the original description of the species which appeared in the Report of the Commissioner of Agriculture for the year 1880, pages 309-310.

DISTRIBUTION AND FOOD PLANTS.

In addition to the records above cited, the grape scale was received from Miss Mary E. Murtfeldt, Kirkwood, Mo., in 1888, and it was stated that grape canes in that vicinity were very badly infested with the insect. Two years later specimens of the grape scale were received from Prof. F. M. Webster at Lafayette, Ind., with a similar report as to its occurrence.

In October, 1897, Mr. F. Noack reported the grape scale in vineyards in the vicinity of São Paulo, Brazil, and in January, 1900, the grape scale was reported on sycamore, from Atlanta, Ga., by Mr. W. M. Scott.

This scale was also found on sycamore by Mr. James G. Sanders, at Columbus, Ohio, in 1902, and was reported from Gentry, Ark., on grape by Mr. E. L. Jenne, of this bureau, in 1900. Many other reports

¹ Scale insects. Indiana Horticultural Society, Report for 1896, p. 16.

have been noted and the list of host plants found thus far is as follows: *Ampelopsis* sp., *Carya alba*, *Carya* sp., cultivated grape, *Platanus occidentalis*, *Platanus* sp., European grape (*Vitis vinifera*), and wild grapes (*Vitis* spp.).

The records do not show that there is variation among the different varieties of grapes as to susceptibility to attack, but it is likely that the stronger-growing sorts would be least injured. So far as known the grape scale is of no economic importance, except on the grape, but it has been the subject of frequent complaint on grapes during the past few years and in certain vineyards in the environs of Washington its injuries have become decidedly important, requiring treatment for the preservation of the vines.

From the above it will be seen that the grape scale is rather widely distributed in the eastern United States, occurring from Florida north to New Jersey and as far west as Missouri. From published records and those in the Bureau of Entomology, it is known to occur in the following States: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. It has also been reported from foreign countries, being listed from many parts of Europe, from Brazil, Jamaica, and the West Indies.

HABITS AND NATURAL HISTORY.

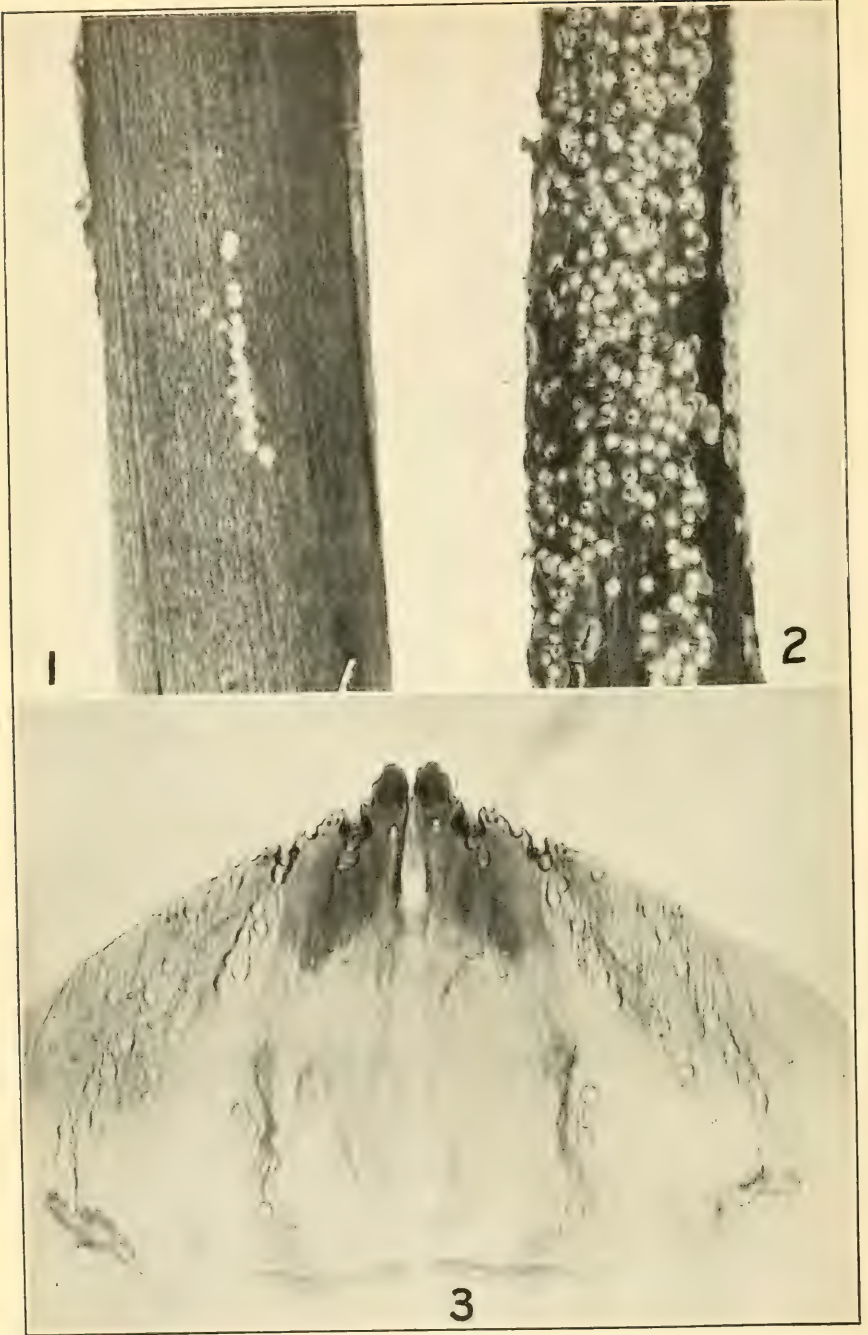
Grapevines, when badly infested with the grape scale, have the appearance of being coated with a profuse, dingy white scurf. (See Pl. XVII.) The scales occur upon the canes, protected by the shreds of the exfoliated bark tissue of the previous season's growth. From observations made, this insect seems to have many habits similar to those of the San Jose scale (*Aspidiotus perniciosus* Comst.). The grape scale, when abundant, very materially retards the development of the vines and always infests the second year's growth. The young "lice" have the peculiar habit of settling in rows. (See Pl. XVIII, fig. 1.) Frequently the canes are so thickly infested that they have the appearance of having been treated with a heavy coat of whitewash. The insect apparently does not spread readily, as it has often been noted that while one vine in a row may be badly infested, not a single scale is to be found on adjacent plants.

The female insect, during the months of May and June, gives birth to from 35 to 50 living young. After a brief active stage of about two days, the young "lice" settle down on the cane and there is a fairly uniform development. During the period of growth from the immature larva to the adult stage, the insect molts or casts its skin twice. As is true with all of the armored scales, the life of this insect, with the exception of the short period of activity of the young,



GRAPE CANES, ENLARGED, SHOWING INFESTATION BY THE GRAPE SCALE, *ASPIDIOTUS* (*DIASPIDIOTUS*) *UVÆ*.

Note how the scales occur in rows on the canes. (Original.)



THE GRAPE SCALE.

Fig. 1.—Showing how the young scales settle, more or less, in longitudinal rows. Fig. 2.—Full-grown male and female scales; also many parasitized individuals. Fig. 3.—Pygidium of adult female, showing circumgenital glands and orifice, lobes, and spines. (Original.)

and an equally brief period of activity of the winged male, is passed under the protection of a waxy covering, closely applied to the host plant. The female is wingless throughout her life. The adult winged male appears in June. The winter is passed by the insects in a nearly full grown condition. Our observations show that there is only a single brood of larvæ each year. It also appears that this species does not deposit eggs, as has been thought, but that the female is viviparous.

Some newly born larvæ (fig. 26) were placed on a grape cane in order to ascertain the length of the active stage. The crawling "lice" were kept under occasional observation and at the end of 24 hours all were still moving, but after 48 hours all lice had settled down and had already begun the excretion of the white waxy covering. The scale formed over the young insect is whitish in color and appears to have two rings on its dorsal surface. The edge of the scale is closely cemented to the bark of the twig.

Many larvæ were examined to ascertain how fully the lobes were developed. When one day old, well-developed median lobes were found to be present.

DESCRIPTION.¹

Scale of female (Pl. XVIII, fig. 2).—Yellowish-brown, slightly lighter than the bark of the vine, diameter 1.1 to 1.7 mm., circular and comparatively flat, exuviae bright yellow, subcentral.

Scale of male (Pl. XVIII, fig. 2).—Elongate, length 0.9 to 1.0 mm., width 0.5 mm., exuviae to one side, slightly darker and more convex than female scale.

Adult female (Pl. XVIII, fig. 3).—From 1 to 1.4 mm.

in length, oval. *Anal plate* 0.4 mm. broad at base by 0.23 mm. long. Median lobes prominent, more or

less parallel, slightly diverging at tip, notched on each margin, with inner notch fairly prominent and slightly elevated; lateral lobes wanting or rudimentary, as is the case with *ancylus*; two distinct lateral incisions present; paraphyses of first incision conspicuous, inner the largest, pear-shaped; paraphyses of second incision much smaller; plates minute, obscure; spines on dorsal surface strongly developed, one on median lobe, one cephalad of each incision, and one halfway to the penultimate segment, ventral spines smaller and lateral of dorsal spines; anal opening small, circular, about two and one-half lobes length from tip of median lobes; paragenitals, median 0.4, anterior laterals 4-9, posterior laterals 3-7; dorsal pores present in three rows, first con-

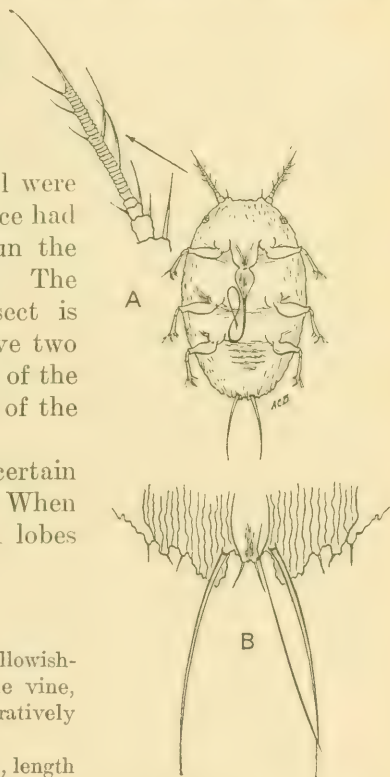


FIG. 26.—The grape scale: Newly hatched larva, ventral view, showing legs; A, antenna; B, anal segments. Much enlarged; A and B more enlarged. (Original.)

¹ Prepared by Mr. E. R. Sasser, of the Bureau of Entomology.

sisting of two at first incision, second of eight at second incision, third of five to eight caudad of fourth spine; median and lateral basal thickenings prominent; apical ventral chitinization strongly developed, brown; ventral longitudinal ridges fairly distinct. (See Pl. XVIII, fig. 3.)

Winged male (Pl. XIX).—Appears in June; at least no record of its earlier appearance can be found in literature, and the writer reared no males previous to this date. *Head* 0.06 mm. long, 0.107 mm. wide, about the same color as the thorax, nearly rectangular in shape, broadening somewhat at base. *Eyes* brownish in color, located on the side of head near the front. *Ocelli* two in number, on the upper part of the epicranium, and lighter in color than the compound eyes. Mouth parts apparently absent. *Antennæ* about same color as thorax, bearing 10 segments, the basal one being short and nearly globose, others nearly uniform in size, with spines or hairs which are longer on the apical segment and absent on the basal. Length of antennal segments: (1) 0.016 mm., (2) 0.016 mm., (3) 0.049 mm., (4) 0.049 mm., (5) 0.05 mm., (6) 0.066 mm., (7) 0.049 mm., (8) 0.032 mm., (9) 0.041 mm., (10) 0.04 mm. Width of segments: (1) 0.024 mm., (2) 0.016 mm., (3) 0.014 mm., (4) 0.016 mm., (5) 0.018 mm., (6) 0.016 mm., (7) 0.016 mm., (8) 0.018 mm., (9) 0.018 mm., (10) 0.012 mm. *Abdomen* eight-segmented, having at the caudal end a long spikelike appendage, termed style or genital spike (see Pl. XIX, fig. 2), about 0.215 mm. long and 0.033 mm. wide at base, tapering to a sharp point grooved below, forming a sheath for the penis, this sheath bearing four hairs or bristles at base, two on the dorsum and two stronger, ventrad. *Thorax*, general color pale clay-yellow, with edge of the thoracic shield darker, approaching cadmium-yellow; slightly longer than broad, crossed at the central part of dorsum by a heavy pale-brown band about one-half the width of the thorax at point of intersection; cephalic and caudal margins slightly concave, with blunt-shaped ends. *Wings*, length 0.56 mm., width 0.249 mm., covered with numerous spines, colorless, very narrow at base, bearing two main veins, the costal presenting caudal serrations (see Pl. XIX, fig. 4); located on the lateral margin of the metathorax are the "halteres," or "balancers," which hook into the lobes at the base of the wings, giving them additional strength. *Legs* about the same color as body; coxa very broad, stout, wider at base; trochanter nearly rectangular, stout, not so broad as coxa; femur narrower at proximal extremity, growing broader distad; tibia slender, with hairs near distal end; tarsus rather broad at base, gradually tapering toward claw, also with many hairs at distal end; claw broad at base and curved inward. Measurements of left posterior leg, as follows:

	Width.	Length.		Width.	Length.
	<i>Mm.</i>	<i>Mm.</i>		<i>Mm.</i>	<i>Mm.</i>
Coxa.....	0.03	0.046	Tibia.....	0.023	0.08
Trochanter.....	.011	.01	Tarsus.....	.019	.061
Femur.....	.03	.092	Claw.....	.003	.007

PARASITES.

SPECIES PREVIOUSLY RECORDED.

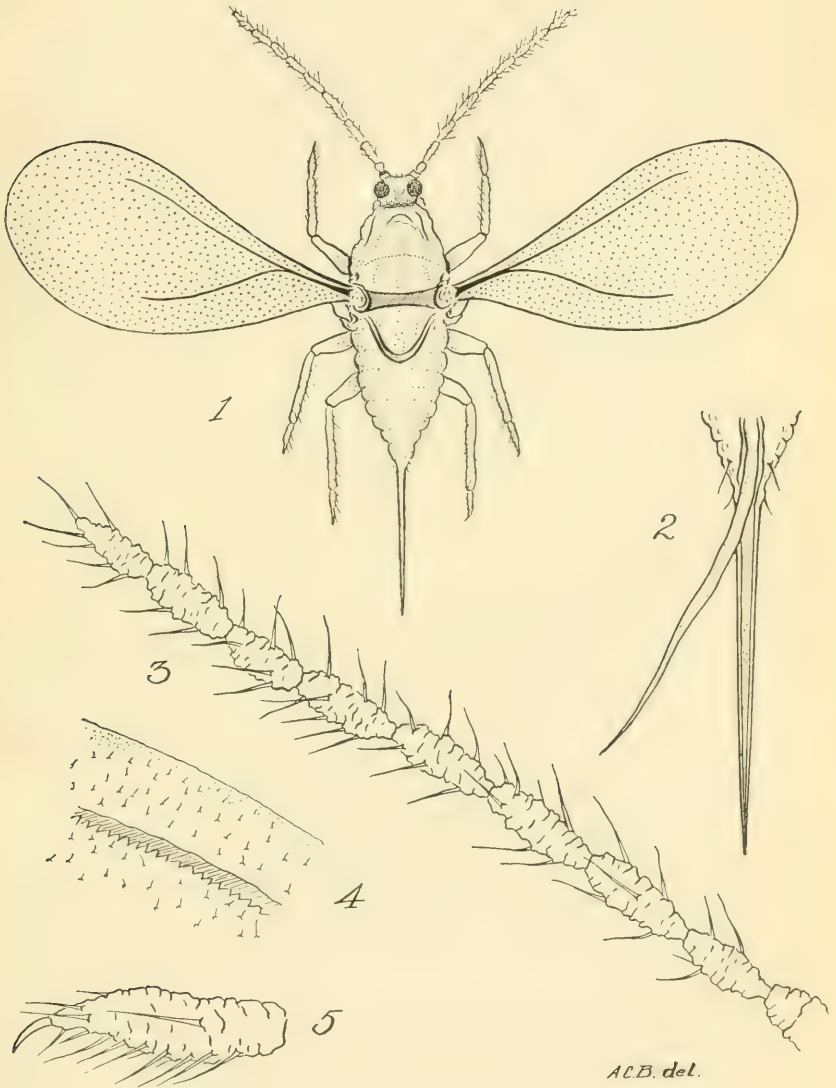
In one publication¹ Miss Mary E. Murtfeldt reports a species of *Centrodora* as being found parasitizing the grape scale.

In another publication² Miss Murtfeldt mentions that the grape scale is preyed upon by mites belonging to the genus *Tyroglyphus*.

In 1888 and 1889 Miss Murtfeldt sent in a few specimens of a parasite which proved to belong to the Chalcididæ, subfamily Aphelininæ,

¹ 36th Ann. Rept. Hort. Soc. Mo., pp. 118-119, 1893.

² Insect Life, vol. 7, p. 5, 1894.



THE GRAPE SCALE.

Fig. 1.—Adult winged male. Fig. 2.—Genitalia of male. Fig. 3.—Antenna of male. Fig. 4.—Serrations on costal vein. Fig. 5.—Tarsus and claw of male. (Original.)

in which it formed a new genus: it was later described as *Prospaltella murtfeldtii* How. More than a dozen of these little Hymenoptera emerged from the scales on a piece of grape cane about 5 inches long.

SPECIES REARED BY THE WRITER.

On May 20, 1911, the writer examined many female scales and found that about 80 per cent of the insects were parasitized. (See Pl. XVIII, fig. 2.) In some instances the parasites were found under



FIG. 27.—Cage used in rearing parasites of the grape scale. The parasites come to the light and are entrapped in the glass tubes. After model of the California State Board of Horticulture. (Original.)

the exuviae, but generally the parasite had emerged, leaving an exit hole near the central upper part of the scale.

Many grape twigs were placed in a parasite rearing cage, shown in figure 27, and as the parasites emerged they came to the light and were entrapped in the test tubes.

The following species of the parasites reared were determined by Dr. L. O. Howard: *Ablerus clisiocampæ* Ashm., *Physcus varicornis* How., *Azotus marchali* How., *Coccophagus* n. sp., *Aphelinus fuscipennis* How., *Prospaltella murtfeldtii* How., *Ablerus* n. sp., and *Physcus* sp.

Mr. J. C. Crawford determined a parasite reared from this species as belonging to the family Ceraphronidae, but on account of the crushed condition of the insect the species was unrecognizable.

Many of the parasites reared from this scale belonged to the family Encyrtidae and were sent to Mr. A. A. Girault for determination; they all proved to be one species, *Signiphora pulchra* Girault MS.

The following is a complete list of the parasites reared by the writer from the grape scale: *Ablerus elisiocampæ* Ashm.; *Ablerus* n. sp., *Phycus varicornis* How., *Phycus* sp., *Azotus marchali* How., *Coccophagus* n. sp., *Aphelinus fuscipennis* How., *Centrodora* sp., *Prosaltella murtfeldtii* How., *Signiphora pulchra* Girault MS. The scale was also found infested with the predaceous mite *Tyroglyphus* sp.

PREVENTIVES AND REMEDIES.

LIME-SULPHUR WASH.

The lime-sulphur spray mixture is one of the most important insecticides used by the fruit grower in combating scale insects. It is prepared as follows:

FORMULA.

Stone lime.....	pounds..	20
Sulphur (flowers or flour).....	do....	15
Water to make.....	gallons..	50

First heat in a kettle or caldron about one-third the quantity of water required. When the water is hot, add all the lime and immediately add all the sulphur. The latter, however, should have been previously put through a fine-mesh sieve in order to eliminate the hard lumps, and have been mixed into a stiff paste with water. When the lime has slaked, about another one-third of the water should be added and the cooking should continue for from 40 minutes to 1 hour; then the remainder of the water should be added. The solution should always be strained in order to eliminate the lumps and lessen the danger of clogging the nozzles.

SELF-BOILED LIME-SULPHUR WASH.

The self-boiled lime-sulphur mixture is made by the heat generated in slaking the lime, and may be used for spraying infested vines in foliage.

FORMULA.

Stone lime.....	pounds..	8
Sulphur (flowers or flour).....	do....	8
Water to make.....	gallons..	50

Place the lime in a 50-gallon barrel, add 2 or 3 gallons of cold water, then add the sulphur, which should have been previously screened. Stir the mixture occasionally and add more water if the solution

becomes too thick. As soon as the lime has completely slaked add cold water to make the 50 gallons. Strain the liquid before pouring it into the spray tank.

OTHER SPRAYS.

In addition to the lime-sulphur sprays other contact insecticides may be employed, as whale-oil-soap solution, kerosene or crude petroleum emulsion, etc. For winter treatment, however, probably nothing would be better than the strong lime-sulphur wash above mentioned. For some unexplained reason, sulphur sprays when used on grapes in foliage produce harmful effects in checking the growth of the foliage. When it is desired to treat the grape scale during the period of foliage of the vines, the use of whale-oil soap at the rate of 1 pound to 3 or 4 gallons of water, or of 10 to 12 per cent kerosene emulsion, may be advisable.

There are on the market certain proprietary sprays, known as miscible oils, and also concentrated lime-sulphur solutions. These have only to be diluted with water and are ready for use. Where but a small amount of spraying is to be done, their employment will often be found advantageous in preference to making washes at home.

WHEN TO SPRAY.

Summer spraying.—The larvæ appear in the vicinity of Washington, D. C., about the middle of May, and it is necessary to give the first application about one week after their first appearance. Of course south of this locality one would expect them to appear a few days earlier and north of it a few days later. Close examination has shown that the larvæ are constantly hatching and crawling over the plant during a period of about two months, each "louse" settling down, however, within about 48 hours. On May 5, 1910, some grapevines which were badly infested with this insect were sprayed with self-boiled lime-sulphur wash, only one application being made, and upon a later examination only a few living insects were found. On account of the habit of the young "lice" of settling under the shreds of dead bark it is very difficult to apply the liquid so that it will come into contact with all the insects. This makes it advisable to give a second and sometimes a third application.

Winter spraying.—As the foliage is very susceptible to burning, the stronger caustic sprays must be applied during the dormant period of the plants. The concentrated lime-sulphur wash and strong whale-oil soap wash, as well as strong kerosene emulsion, are used during this season of the year. As the winter is passed by the insects under the protective scale covering, an application, in order to be effective, must be very thoroughly made.

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INDEX.

	Page.
<i>Ablerus clisiocampæ</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
n. sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
<i>Egeria opalescens</i> = <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	66
original description	78
<i>Agropyron repens</i> , food plant of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
Almond root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
<i>Ampelopsis</i> sp., food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
Ant, enemy of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	83
<i>Aphelinus fuscipennis</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
parasite of <i>Aspidiotus uvæ</i> , bibliographic reference	122
<i>Aphis prunicola</i> , the black peach aphid	104
Apple, food plant of codling moth	13-32
nursery stock, injury by <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	108
root stock, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
tree borers, bibliographic reference	122
Apricot, food plant of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67-68
root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
Arsenate of lead against codling moth	42, 51
and Bordeaux mixture against rose-chaffer in vineyards	59-64
self-boiled lime-sulphur wash against peach and plum slug	102
Bordeaux mixture, and molasses against rose-chaffer	59, 60, 62-63
Arsenicals against rose-chaffer in vineyards	58-63
sweetened, against rose-chaffer in vineyards	62-63
Arsenite of lime and molasses against rose-chaffer in vineyards	62
Bordeaux mixture, and molasses against rose-chaffer in vineyards	62
injury to grapevines by heavy applications	59
<i>Aspidiotus comstocki</i> , bibliographic reference	123
<i>perniciosus</i> , bibliographic reference	123
the San Jose scale	116
(<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i> , adult female, description	117-118
winged male, description	118
bibliography	122-124
description	117-118
distribution	115-116
food plants	115-116
habits	116-117
natural history	116-117
parasites	118-120
preventives	120-121
remedies	120-121
scale of female, description	117
male, description	117
"Avoines en cigares" injury to oats caused by <i>Tarsonemus spirifex</i>	111
<i>Azotus marchali</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119-120

	Page.
Bagworm, bibliographic reference.....	122
Barley, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifer</i>	111
"Bianchella" malady to rice produced by <i>Tarsonemus oryza</i>	111
Bisulphid of carbon treatment against California peach borer.....	87
Black-rot fungus of grapevines, control by Bordeaux mixture.....	62
Bordeaux mixture and arsenate of lead against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	59-64
arsenate of lead, and molasses against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	59, 60, 62-63
arsenite of lime, and molasses against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	62
in control of black-rot fungus of grapevine.....	62
Cage for rearing <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	93-94
<i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i> , adult, life history.....	94-95
damage, extent.....	100
developmental period, total.....	100
egg, life history.....	96
injury to peach and plum trees.....	91, 100
larva, life history.....	96-98
life history.....	94-100
natural enemies.....	100-102
observations thereon in 1910.....	92-94
oviposition.....	94-95
prepupa, life history.....	98-99
pupa, life history.....	99
remedies.....	102
(<i>Selandria</i>) <i>obsoletum</i> , name used for <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	91
Carabid larvæ, enemies of codling moth.....	32
<i>Carpocapsa pomonella</i> . (See Codling moth.)	
<i>Carya alba</i> , food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
sp., food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
Cement, hydraulic, ineffective against California peach borer.....	87
<i>Centrodora</i> sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	118-120
<i>Cerasus demissa</i> , native food plant of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67
<i>Ceresa bubalus</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
Cherry, food plant of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67, 68
root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
<i>Chionaspis furfurus</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Chokecherry, western. (See <i>Cerasus demissa</i> .)	
Chrysanthemum, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus pallidus</i>	112
Coal tar, lime, and whale-oil soap against California peach borer.....	87
<i>Coccophagus</i> n. sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
Codling moth in California.....	13-51
band records for 1909 and 1910.....	27-31
control on pears.....	32-51
commercial results from spraying..	41-51
Contra Costa County, 1909.....	41-44
1910.....	44-49
effect of sprays on places of entrance by larvæ.....	33-41
profits from spraying.....	43-44, 49
Solano County, 1910.....	49-51
eggs, first brood.....	18-21
second brood.....	24

	Page.
Codling moth in California, first brood eggs, incubation period.....	19-20
time of oviposition.....	18-19
arvæ, development in fruit.....	20-21
larval life in cocoon.....	21
time of hatching.....	20
moths.....	23-24
pupæ, length of period.....	21-23
time of pupation.....	21
generation.....	18-24
larvæ, first brood.....	20-21
overwintering.....	14
second brood.....	25-26
life cycle of first generation.....	24
history notes.....	14-32
review for 1909 and 1910.....	26-31
moths, first brood.....	23-24
spring brood.....	17-18
natural enemies.....	32
overwintering larvæ.....	14
parasites.....	32
predaceous enemies.....	32
pupæ, first brood.....	21-23
spring brood.....	14-16
recommendations for control.....	51
second brood eggs, incubation period.....	24
time of oviposition.....	24
larvæ, development in relation to fruit.....	25
life in fruit.....	25-26
overwintering.....	26
time of hatching.....	25
generation.....	24-26
spring brood of moths.....	17-18
pupæ.....	14-16
length of period.....	15-16
summary.....	51
Cultural methods against grape leafhopper.....	7-8
rose-charter.....	64
Cushman, R. A., paper, "Notes on the Peach and Plum Slug (<i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i>)".....	91-102
<i>Diaspis rosæ</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Dipterous larva, enemy of <i>Sanninoida opalescens</i>	83
<i>Eriocampoides limacina</i> , the pear slug, resemblance of larva of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i> thereto.....	91
<i>Eulabis rufipes</i> , enemy of codling moth.....	32
<i>Euthrips tritici</i> (see also <i>Thrips tritici</i>). in tender growing tips of peach and other vegetation.....	108
<i>Festuca rubra</i> , food plant of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
<i>Fidia viticida</i> . (See Grape rootworm.)	
Foster, S. W., paper, "Life History of the Codling Moth and its Control on Pears in California".....	13-51
"Fruitlet core rot" of pineapples, dissemination by <i>Tarsonemus ananas</i>	112
Fungous diseases of grape, control by spraying.....	63

	Page.
Glue and Paris green washes ineffective against California peach borer, injurious to trees.....	87
"Gophers," injury to root stocks of fruit trees in California.....	68
Grape (<i>see also</i> <i>Vitis</i>).	
berry moth, control by spraying.....	63
European. (<i>See Vitis vinifera</i> .)	
food plant of <i>Aspidiotus (Diaspidiotus) uvæ</i>	115-124
grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i>).....	1-12
rose-chafer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>).....	53-64
leafhopper. (<i>See</i> Leafhopper, grape.)	
rootworm, control by spraying.....	63
scale, control by spraying.....	120-121
spraying in summer.....	121
winter.....	121
Grapes, wild. (<i>See Vitis</i> spp.)	
Grasses, food plats of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
perhaps food plants of <i>Tarsonemus spirifer</i>	111
silver-top disease caused by <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
<i>Hæmatobia serrata</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
= <i>Lyperosia irritans</i>	122
Handpicking rose-chafer beetles in vineyards.....	57-58
<i>Hyperallus caliroæ</i> , parasite of <i>Caliroa (Eriocampoides) amygdalina</i>	101-102
Johnson, Fred, paper, "Spraying Experiments Against the Grape Leafhopper in the Lake Erie Valley".....	1-12
"Vineyard Spraying Experiments Against the Rose-chafer in the Lake Erie Valley".....	53-64
Kerosene (<i>see also</i> Petroleum and Oil).	
emulsion against grape scale.....	121
peach bud mite.....	114
Ladybird, twice-stabbed, enemy of <i>Aspidiotus uvæ</i> , bibliographic reference....	122
Leafhopper, grape, adult, life history.....	6-7
adults, emergence in spring.....	4-5
not effectively controlled by sprays.....	8
characteristics.....	2-3
control by spray applications against nymphs.....	8-12
cost of spray application in the Lake Erie Valley.....	10-11
egg stage, life history.....	5
emergence of adults in spring.....	4-5
habits.....	2-3
hibernation.....	3-4
injuries in the Lake Erie Valley.....	1-2
in the Lake Erie Valley, conclusion.....	12
spraying experiments.....	1-12
life history.....	3-7
nymphal stages, life history.....	6
nymphs, control by spray applications.....	8-12
remedial measures.....	7-12
<i>Lecanium nigrofasciatum</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Lime, coal tar, and whale-oil soap against California peach borer.....	87
crude oil wash against California peach borer.....	86
oil mixture as preventive against California peach borer.....	83-85
sulphur salt mixture against California peach borer.....	86
wash against grape scale.....	120, 121

	Page.
Lime-sulphur wash against peach bud mite.....	113, 114
concentrated, against grape scale.....	121
self-boiled, against grape scale.....	120-121
and arsenate of lead against peach and plum slug.....	102
London purple, injury to grapevines by heavy applications.....	59
<i>Lorostege maculura</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
<i>Lygus pratensis</i> , injury to peach nursery stock attributed thereto.....	105
<i>Lyperosia irritans</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
<i>Macroductylus subspinosus</i> . (See <i>Rose-chaffer</i> .)	
Mango, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus latus</i>	112
injury by <i>Tarsonemus latus</i>	112
Mite enemy of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	83
peach bud. (See <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i> .)	
Molasses and arsenite of lime against rose-chaffer in vineyards.....	62
arsenate of lead, and Bordeaux mixture against rose-chaffer in vine- yards.....	59, 60, 62-63
Bordeaux mixture and arsenite of lime against rose-chaffer in vine- yards.....	62
Moulton, Dudley, paper, "The California Peach Borer (<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i> Hy. Edw.)".....	65-89
"Mounding" possibly not so effective against California peach borer as against eastern species.....	87
Oats, "avoines en cigares" affection caused by <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	111
food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifer</i>	111
Oil (see also Kerosene and Petroleum).	
and lime mixture as preventive against California peach borer.....	83-85
crude, and lime against California peach borer.....	86
as preventive against California peach borer.....	84-85
miscible, against grape scale.....	121
peach bud mite.....	113
Paints and rosin ineffective against California peach borer, injurious to trees...	87
Paris green, injury to grapevines by heavy applications.....	59
Peach and plum sawfly. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
slug. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
aphis, black. (See <i>Aphis prunicola</i> .)	
borer. (See <i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i> .)	
California. (See <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i> .)	
bud.mite. (See <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i> .)	
food plant of <i>Aphis prunicola</i>	104
<i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	91-102
<i>Euthrips tritici</i>	108
<i>Phyllocaptis cornutus</i>	104
<i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i>	65-66
<i>opalescens</i>	65-89
<i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	103-114
reported food plant of <i>Lygus pratensis</i>	105
<i>Thrips tritici</i>	105
root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
"stop-back" disease the work of <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	107
thrips. (See <i>Thrips tritici</i> .)	
Pear, calyx lobes with reference to spraying against codling moth.....	32-33
food plant of codling moth.....	13-51

	Page.
Pear slug. (See <i>Eriocampoides limacina</i> .)	
Petroleum. (See also Kerosene and Oil.)	
emulsion, crude, against grape scale.....	121
<i>Phleum pratense</i> , food plant of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
<i>Phyllocoptes cornutus</i> , confusion with <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	104
injury to peach leaves.....	104
<i>Physcus</i> sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
<i>varicornis</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
Pineapple disease, "fruitlet core rot," dissemination by <i>Tarsonemus ananas</i> ...	112
food plant of <i>Tarsonemus ananas</i>	112
<i>Platanus occidentalis</i> , food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
sp., food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
Plum and peach sawfly. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
slug. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
food plant of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	91-102
<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67, 68
root stocks, native, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
wild, Myrobalan, or cherry. (See <i>Prunus cerasifera</i> .)	
<i>Polychrosis viteana</i> . (See Grape-berry moth.)	
<i>Prospalta murtefeldtii</i> , bibliographic references.....	122
<i>Prospaltella murtfeldtii</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
Pruning against peach bud mite.....	113-114
<i>Prunus cerasifera</i> root stocks almost exempt from injury by <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
<i>Pulvinaria innumerabilis</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Quaintance, A. L., paper, "Notes on the Peach Bud Mite, an Enemy of Peach Nursery Stock (<i>Tarsonemus waitei</i> Banks, MSS)".....	103-114
Rearing <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i> , cage.....	93-94
Rice, "bianchella" malady produced by <i>Tarsonemus oryzae</i>	111
food plant of <i>Tarsonemus oryzae</i>	111
Rose bug, colloquial name for rose-chaffer (<i>Macroductylus subspinosus</i>).....	56
chafer difficulties in control.....	53
habits of adult in vineyards.....	54-56
larva in vineyards.....	56-57
in Lake Erie Valley, injury to vineyards.....	53
time to make spray applications in vineyards.....	63-64
vineyard spraying experiments against it... ..	53-64
vineyards, control by arsenicals.....	58-64
cleaning up breeding places.....	64
handpicking.....	57-58
summary.....	64
oviposition.....	56
remedial measures in vineyards.....	57-64
Rosin and paints ineffective against California peach borer, injurious to trees..	87
Rye, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifex</i>	111
<i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i> , comparison with <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	65-66, 78
the peach borer of the Eastern United States.....	65-66
<i>opalescens</i> , adult.....	77-82
description, original, and subsequent notes.....	78
bibliography.....	88-89
broods, number, as shown by "worming" records.....	71-73
cocoon, formation, position, and structure.....	74-75
comparison with <i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i>	65-66, 78

	Page.
<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i> , control methods.....	83-88
distribution.....	66-68
egg, description.....	68
development and hatching.....	68-69
fertility.....	69
feeding habits of larvæ.....	69-71, 74
of moths.....	80
flight.....	80
food plants, native.....	67
fruit budding and grafting stocks resistant to attack....	68
history in relation to fruit growing in Santa Clara Valley..	67
in California, limits of areas in which injury occurs....	67-68
Santa Clara Valley, history.....	67
injury, character.....	71
to peach orchards in Santa Clara Valley.....	65
larva, character of injury.....	71
feeding habits within burrow.....	74
newly hatched, feeding habits.....	69-70
period when entering trees.....	71
larval period, length, as shown by "worming" records..	71-73
mating.....	80, 82
moths, earliest, maximum, and latest appearances.....	79
habits of those newly emerged.....	77-78
length of life.....	82
natural enemies.....	83
oviposition.....	80-82
preventives, experiments therewith.....	83-85
pupa.....	74-77
description.....	75
length of period.....	75-77
pupæ, earliest, maximum, and latest appearance.....	77
recommendations for control.....	88
remedies against eastern peach borer not effective.....	87
soil conditions as bearing on infestation.....	68
summary.....	88
varieties of cultivated fruits attacked.....	68
washes as protection after "worming," formulas.....	86-87
"worming" and applying washes in control.....	85-87
records.....	71-73
<i>pacifica</i> = <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	66
Sasscer, E. R., description of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	117-118
Sawfly, peach and plum. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
Scale, grape. (See <i>Aspidiotus</i> [<i>Diaspidiotus</i>] <i>uvæ</i> .)	
San Jose. (See <i>Aspidiotus perniciosus</i> .)	
"Set-back" of peach. (See "Stop-back.")	
<i>Signiphora pulchra</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	120
Silver-top disease of grasses caused by <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
Slug, peach and plum. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
pear. (See <i>Eriocampoides limacina</i> .)	
Soap solution, whale-oil, against grape scale.....	121
peach bud mite.....	114
coal tar, and lime against California peach borer.....	87

	Page.
<i>Stiretrus anchorago</i> , enemy of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	100
<i>pulchella</i> = <i>Stiretrus anchorago</i>	100
"Stop-back" disease of peach, the work of <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	107
Sugar cane, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus bancrofti</i> and another species of <i>Tarsonemus</i>	112
injury by <i>Tarsonemus bancrofti</i> and another species of <i>Tarsonemus</i>	112
<i>Tarsonemus ananas</i> , injury to pineapples.....	112
<i>bancrofti</i> , injury to sugar cane.....	112
<i>culmicolus</i> , injury to grasses.....	112
<i>latus</i> , injury to mango.....	112
<i>oryza</i> , injury to rice.....	111
<i>pallidus</i> on chrysanthemum.....	112
sp., injury to sugar cane.....	112
<i>spirifer</i> , injury to oats, wheat, barley, and rye.....	111
<i>waitei</i>	103-114
economic importance.....	106-110
habits.....	110
history.....	103-106
injury to peach, nature.....	109-110
natural history.....	110
relationship, systematic, and other species.....	111-112
remedial considerations.....	113-114
<i>Thrips tritici</i> (see also <i>Euthrips tritici</i>). injury to peach attributed thereto.....	105
Tobacco extract, blackleaf, against grape leafhopper.....	8-12
"40," against grape leafhopper.....	9
<i>Trichogramma minutum</i> , parasite of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	100-101
<i>Typhlocyba comes</i> . (See Leafhopper, grape.) var. <i>coloradensis</i> , adult, figure.....	1
<i>Tyroglyphus</i> sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	118, 120
<i>Vitis</i> (see also Grape). spp., food plants of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
<i>vinifera</i> , food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
Wheat, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifer</i>	111
"Worming" and applying washes against California peach borer.....	85-87
records for California peach borer.....	71-73
Wrappings of paper, etc., not successfully used against California peach borer.....	87
Zimmer, James F., paper, "The Grape Scale (<i>Aspidiotus</i> [<i>Diaspidiotus</i>] <i>uvæ</i> Comst.)".....	115-124

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,

BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97, Part I.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST THE
GRAPE LEAFHOPPER IN THE
LAKE ERIE VALLEY.

BY

FRED JOHNSON,

Agent and Expert.

ISSUED MARCH 31, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1911.

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DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	1
Characteristics and habits of the grape leafhopper	2
Life history.....	3
Hibernation.....	3
Spring emergence of adults.....	4
The egg stage.....	5
The nymphal stages.....	6
The adult.....	6
Remedial measures.....	7
Spray applications against the nymphs.....	8
Conclusion.....	12

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE I. Fig. 1.—Cover crop of vetch in vineyard of Mr. John Higgins, North East, Pa. Fig. 2.—Cover crop of turnips in vineyard of Mottier Bros., North East, Pa.; vineyard badly infested by grape leafhopper, which was effectively treated with blackleaf tobacco-extract spray.....	8
II. Fig. 1.—Injury by grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i>) to unsprayed vines. Fig. 2.—Perfect foliage of sprayed vines. Views from experimental plats in vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper, at North East, Pa.....	10

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 1.—The grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i> var. <i>coloradensis</i>): Adult.....	1
2.—The grape leafhopper: Nymph of the first molt.....	3
3.—The grape leafhopper: Fully developed nymph of the fifth molt.....	3
4.—Grape leaf in early stages of attack by the grape leafhopper, showing the characteristic mottling of the upper surface.....	4
5.—Grape leaf showing final result of attack by the grape leafhopper; leaf withered and brown before the fruit is mature.....	5

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES

SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST THE GRAPE LEAF-HOPPER IN THE LAKE ERIE VALLEY.

By FRED JOHNSON,
Agent and Expert.

INTRODUCTION.

The grape leafhopper (*Typhlocyba comes* Say) (fig. 1) is an enemy of grapevines familiar to almost every vineyardist, and doubtless at times it has become so numerous and destructive in his vineyard as to cause him considerable anxiety. Usually, however, in the vineyards of the Lake Erie Valley, serious depredations by this pest are confined to somewhat limited areas adjacent to rough lands and woodlots. A few vines at the ends of the rows or a few rows along the outside of vineyards will be injured year after year until the crop yield on these vines is considerably reduced. Under these conditions it receives slight attention from the average vineyardist and is regarded as more or less of a negligible quantity. Periodically, however, some as yet unknown conditions seem to favor its multiplication and it spreads over wide areas causing injury amounting to many thousands of dollars. Such a condition obtained in the vineyards of Chautauqua County, in the vicinity of Westfield, N. Y., during the seasons of 1901 and 1902, when many hundreds of acres of vineyards suffered greatly from the injury wrought by this pest. In 1903 the insect disappeared to a considerable extent and serious injury was again confined to limited areas until the season of 1910. The insect is now manifestly on the increase and during the past season (1910) spread through large blocks of vineyard. In fact,

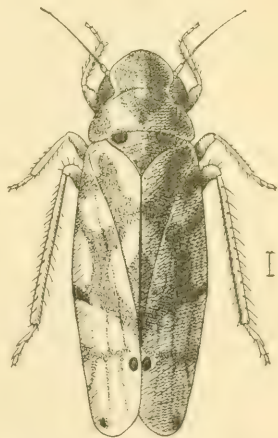


FIG. 1.—The grape leafhopper (*Typhlocyba comes* var. *coloradensis*): Adult. Greatly enlarged. Original.)

toward the latter end of the summer its presence in more or less destructive numbers was evident throughout the entire grape belt. By far the greater injury occurred, however, in those vineyards portions of which have been continuously infested. With the general increase of this pest throughout the Lake Erie Valley there has developed a feeling of anxiety on the part of many vineyardists and a general inquiry is being made as to the best means of holding it in check.

Heretofore the chief factors in the lack of success of the vineyardist in his efforts to combat this pest have been that he has either failed to recognize the most vulnerable stage in its life history or else he has minimized its capacity for injury until this period has passed, only to be filled with regrets later in the season when his vines are swarming with the winged adults and the foliage is so badly injured by them that it presents a brown and scorched appearance which renders it functionless at a period when healthy leaves are necessary to the plant for the purpose of elaborating the sugar of the fruit and for the proper maturing of the new growth so that it will withstand the severity of the winter and make a vigorous growth in the following spring. If, however, the vineyardist will acquaint himself with the habits and development of this pest there is no doubt that he can combat it successfully when it is in the immature stages, before its wings are fully developed, by the thorough application of a contact spray.

CHARACTERISTICS AND HABITS OF THE GRAPE LEAFHOPPER.

Before proceeding to discuss remedial measures, the primary object of this paper, it may be well to consider briefly the characteristics, habits, and life history of the grape leafhopper, inasmuch as they vary greatly from those of another very destructive pest of the grapevine, namely, the grape rootworm.

The grape leafhopper is a minute insect, less than one-eighth of an inch long. The body and wings are of a light yellowish color, and the wings entirely envelop the upper part of the abdomen in a rooflike covering when the insect is at rest. This position of the wings has an important bearing on the killing effect of a contact spray. As the hibernation period approaches, the more pronounced yellow marking of the wings and body changes to an orange-red, which, however, exists only during the winter months and disappears after the insect has fed for a short time on the foliage of the vine during the following spring. These winged forms are the mature or adult insects and are the forms most familiar to the casual observer. The adults are frequently found in large numbers leaping and flying actively among the foliage of the vines during the early part of the grape-picking season, in September and early October. Sometimes during bright,

warm afternoons of early autumn the air will be filled with thousands of these little creatures drifting somewhat aimlessly on the light breeze and causing considerable annoyance by getting into the eyes, ears, and mouth of the beholder.

A close observation of the underside of the leaves of grapevines at this season is likely to reveal the immature or nymphal stage of the insect (fig. 2). These vary greatly in size, from those just hatched to the full-grown nymphs with well-developed wing pads (fig. 3), but they have always the same general form. These leafhoppers belong to the same order of insects as do the scale insects and the plant-lice and secure their food by sucking the juices from the plant in much the same manner as the mosquito sucks blood from an animal. A knowledge of this method of taking food is of the greatest importance from an economic standpoint, since insects which take their food in this way are usually amenable to a spray application of



FIG. 2.—The grape leafhopper: Nymph of the first molt. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

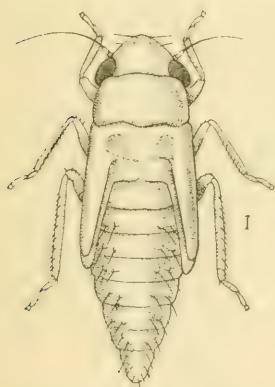


FIG. 3.—The grape leafhopper: Fully developed nymph of the fifth molt. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

an entirely different quality from that which is used in the case of insects which chew or masticate their food. Sucking insects are usually combated by the use of some caustic or smothering substance which must come in direct contact with the outside of the body of each individual, practically at the time of application and in sufficient quantity and strength to effect its almost immediate destruction; whereas, in the case of the chewing insect a stomach poison must be applied, not to the body of the insect, but to the surface of that portion of the plant or fruit upon which the insect feeds.

The adults and the nymphs of the grape leafhopper feed upon the underside of the grape leaf and by sucking the juices therefrom cause it to take on a yellowish, mottled appearance (fig. 4), which later turns brown, and where the infestation is heavy the leaves dry out and become functionless before the fruit is mature. (See fig. 5.)

LIFE HISTORY.

HIBERNATION.

The grape leafhoppers pass the winter as winged adults, which migrate from the vines during October. By the time the grapes are harvested only a small percentage of the adults will be found upon

the vines, although little foliage may have fallen from the vines by that time. During the entire month of October a general dispersion of the adults is in progress throughout the infested area. This dispersion is apparently quite aimless, the individuals settling down and collecting wherever sufficient shelter in the form of fallen leaves, sod lands, hedges, woodlots, and swales is adjacent to the vineyards. Large numbers of them probably never leave the vineyards, passing the winter under the protection afforded by fallen leaves, clumps of grass, weeds, and cover crops. After leaving the grapevines they

feed to some extent upon the still green grass, weeds, and cover crops, and become more or less active when disturbed during the warmer days of winter.

SPRING EMERGENCE OF ADULTS.

Early in May, as the days become warmer and plants commence to throw out new growth, the adults leave their winter protection and feed somewhat indiscriminately upon the new growth of almost any plant with



FIG. 4.—Grape leaf in early stages of attack by the grape leafhopper, showing the characteristic mottling of the upper surface. (Original.)

which they come in contact, showing some preference, however, for the foliage of bush fruits such as wild blackberries, cultivated raspberries, and strawberries. This promiscuous feeding terminates with the unfolding of the leaves of the grapevine and there is a general migration of the insect back to the foliage of the grapevine, this being the only plant upon which this particular species of leafhopper is known to reproduce.

The adult "hoppers" first attack the foliage or sprouts springing from the base of the vine or from canes near the lower wire of the trellis. When the adult insects are very numerous, sufficient injury

results to check the development of the foliage and to retard the growth of those new shoots which spring from the canes near the lower wire of the trellis. This early retardation of growth is more important than would at first appear, for it is highly desirable that these new shoots springing from the canes near the lower wire of the trellis should make a thrifty growth during the early part of the season, since it is from them that canes for bearing the next season's crop of fruit are selected. This feeding of the overwintering adult "hoppers" continues for several weeks: in fact, many of them may remain upon the vines until some of the new generation has matured.

THE EGG STAGE.

Egg laying by the overwintering females does not commence in the vineyards of the Lake Erie Valley until about June 1, after the adults have been feeding upon the vines for several weeks. The eggs are deposited on the underside of the leaves. They are tucked under the skin indiscriminately as to location on the leaf and are very difficult to locate on those varie-



FIG. 5.—Grape leaf showing final result of attack by the grape leafhopper; leaf withered and brown before the fruit is mature. (Original.)

ties possessing a heavy pubescence, as is the case with the Concord. The egg stage covers a period of about 10 days to 2 weeks. The period of egg deposition is obviously a long one, since newly emerged nymphs are present upon the foliage from the middle of June until late in October. Observations indicate, however, that the maximum deposition must occur during the last three weeks in June and the first week in July, since the period when there is a maximum number of nymphs upon the leaves is included in a period from the last week in June until about August 1, at which latter date many fully developed nymphs are making their final molt.

THE NYMPHAL STAGES.

The young "hoppers," or nymphs, commence to appear about the middle of June, and a close examination of the underside of infested leaves at this time is likely to reveal a number of recently hatched nymphs, at about the stage shown in figure 2, running actively over the surface. In hatching from the egg the young "hopper" has to force its way through the pubescence on the underside of the leaf, and in doing so appears as a minute, whitish object, which, when examined under a lens, is seen to possess a pair of red eyes. After a few minutes of laborious struggling it forces itself to the surface of the pubescence, where its legs and antennae spread and become disengaged and the tiny creature is ready to commence its destructive operations. This it does by thrusting its tiny beaklike mouthparts into the tissue of the leaf and extracting the juices. As the season advances it is not uncommon to find individual leaves supporting from 200 to 300 of these nymphs in the various stages of nymphal development.

As the nymph increases in size it casts or molts its old skin for a larger one. There are five of these molts before the nymph reaches the adult stage. The first four require a period of 5 days for each molt, and between the fourth and fifth molts there is a period of 12 days. Hence about a month is required in which to complete the nymphal period. Figure 3 represents a nymph after the fourth molt with fully developed wing pads.

The term "hopper" applied to this form of the insect is a misnomer and is likely to create an erroneous impression concerning the movements of the insect at this period of its life history. The nymphs do not hop or leap, as the term "hopper" would imply, and although they run about very actively on the underside of the leaf and sometimes a few of them may be seen running down the stem of the leaf and also upon its upper surface, it is doubtful if the journeys of more than a very small percentage of them extend beyond the confines of the leaf upon which the eggs from which they were hatched were deposited. This limited area of movement of the insect during this period of its life is exceedingly important from an economic point of view, since it admits of its destruction during the more rapid growing season of the vine and at a period when there is slight possibility of reinfestation of treated areas.

THE ADULT.

With the final molt and the full development and use of its wings the adult leafhopper becomes an extremely agile and active creature, leaping and darting rapidly from leaf to leaf at the slightest disturbance, being much more active during the warm weather than on cold, windy days, when it can be dislodged from its shelter under the

foliage only with considerable difficulty. It is in this stage, as mentioned in a previous paragraph, that the insect becomes disseminated over vineyard areas. Nevertheless, the spread of the adults does not become general until late in the season, when migration for the purpose of hibernation takes place. This feature of its movement was adequately and strikingly demonstrated in several vineyards where experimental work was carried on against the nymphs during the season of 1910. In no case was there a serious reinfestation of the thoroughly treated vines, although adjoining untreated rows were heavily infested throughout the entire season. Hence, we are led to the belief that widespread dissemination of this pest takes place largely during the fall migration, when the adults rise in the air and are carried by the winds, and, again, during the spring migration, when they leave their winter shelter and return to the vines. Thus the vineyardist who has been successful in destroying the nymphs during the summer need have little apprehension of reinfestation later in the season from adjacent infested and untreated vineyards.

REMEDIAL MEASURES.

In discussing the subject of remedial measures for the control of an insect pest, it is always highly desirable to take into consideration cultural and other operations involved in the production of the particular crop under treatment in order that the recommendation of methods of control which may conflict with the most desirable farm practice, or may be impracticable on a commercial scale, may be avoided. Modifications in vineyard or orchard management by the adoption of new methods may also seriously conflict with earlier recommendations which were quite feasible when first suggested. Thus, earlier writers have laid considerable stress upon the value of clean culture of vineyards and the gathering up of all trash and leaves in and bordering upon them as a means of greatly reducing the number of overwintering "hoppers." Unfortunately, however, this cleaning-up process is impracticable over large areas, and it not infrequently happens that adjacent rough lands which furnish winter protection outside the vineyards are not under the control of the owner of the vineyard. Furthermore, the practice of growing winter cover crops of clover, vetch, turnips, etc., in vineyards, a practice highly desirable both from the standpoint of increasing the fertility of the soil and preventing soil wash during the winter months, has become quite general throughout Erie County (see Pl. I, figs. 1 and 2). There is no doubt that cover crops tend to hold more of the hoppers in the vineyards than where clean culture is practiced. Yet many vineyardists are convinced that the ultimate advantage to the vine is so much in favor of the cover crop that they prefer to continue this practice, if possible, and look for some other

means of controlling the grape leafhopper, and are turning their attention toward a summer spray treatment as a means of control.

The active movements of the overwintering adult "hoppers" when feeding upon the new growth of vines in the early spring and the fact that they are somewhat protected by the wings (which, when the insect is at rest, form a rooflike covering over the softer parts of their body) (fig. 1). greatly lessen the efficiency of a contact spray, first, because of their rapid movements, and, second, because, even if hit by the spray, they are not destroyed unless it is of so great a strength that it would injure the tender new growth of the vine.

Another device for the destruction of these overwintering adults has been the use of shields smeared with some sticky substance. This method, however, is quite laborious, and is practicable only for small areas, and in the opinion of the writer is necessary only when the overwintering insects are very numerous and likely to work great injury to the new growth.

In view of the difficulty to be encountered in overcoming the overwintering adults, and confident that this pest can be controlled by a spray treatment applied during the nymphal stage, the experimental work of the bureau was confined entirely to a spray treatment against the nymphs.

These experiments were undertaken in portions of vineyards which had suffered from attacks of this pest for several years and in which it was becoming more destructive each year, and although the overwintering adults were quite numerous and their injury to the new shoots was much in evidence, no attempt was made to check them in any way.

SPRAY APPLICATIONS AGAINST THE NYMPHS.

From the middle of June, when the nymphs first commenced to appear, a close watch was kept on their development, the object being to determine approximately the date at which the maximum number of nymphs would be present upon the foliage before those earliest to hatch had developed wings and before serious injury to the foliage (evidenced by a yellow mottling of those leaves most heavily infested by the nymphs) had become apparent. During the summer of 1910 this date was about July 12. At this time a small number of the nymphs earliest to hatch had entered upon their last molt (fig. 3), and the number present upon the leaves in earlier stages of development was very large, indicating that about the maximum number of nymphs was now present upon the foliage.

The first spray application was made July 12, the substance used being blackleaf tobacco extract, a dark, almost viscid liquid containing $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent nicotine.

Since no data were at hand to indicate the minimum strength at which the solution would kill the nymphs it was necessary to spray



FIG. 1.—COVER CROP OF VETCH IN VINEYARD OF MR. JOHN HIGGINS, NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)



FIG. 2.—COVER CROP OF TURNIPS IN VINEYARD OF MOTTIER BROS., NORTH EAST, PA. VINEYARD BADLY INFESTED BY GRAPE LEAFHOPPER, WHICH WAS EFFECTIVELY TREATED WITH BLACKLEAF TOBACCO-EXTRACT SPRAY. (ORIGINAL.)

a few vines with different dilutions. Accordingly several vines were sprayed with the following dilutions:

TABLE 1.—*Dilutions of blackleaf tobacco extract as used in experiments against the grape leafhopper.*

Plot No.	Number of vines.	Strength of dilution.	Results.
1	4	1 gallon to 75 gallons water.....	All nymphs hit by spray were killed.
2	4	1 gallon to 100 gallons water.....	Do.
3	4	1 gallon to 125 gallons water.....	Do.
4	4	1 gallon to 150 gallons water.....	Do.
5	4	1 gallon to 200 gallons water.....	Do.
6	4	Clear water.....	No nymphs killed.

Blackleaf "40,"¹ another form of highly concentrated tobacco extract, was also used at a much greater dilution, as shown in Table II.

TABLE II.—*Dilutions of blackleaf "40" as used in experiments against the grape leafhopper.*

Plot No.	Number of vines.	Strength of dilution.	Results.
1	4	1 gallon to 1,000 gallons water.....	All nymphs hit by spray were killed.
2	4	1 gallon to 1,500 gallons water.....	Do.
3	4	1 gallon to 1,750 gallons water.....	Do.
4	4	1 gallon to 2,000 gallons water.....	All but fully developed nymphs were killed.
5	4	Clear water.....	No nymphs were killed.

All of the spray applications indicated above were made with a hand pump carrying a pressure of about 80 pounds. A short rod with a nozzle set at right angles attached to a 40-foot hose was used to apply the spray to the nymphs upon the underside of the leaves. Great care was taken to wet the underside of every leaf. The result of these applications could be determined within an hour after they were made, or as soon as the leaves became dry. Those nymphs that were not hit and killed by the spray would be found running about quite actively; thus the efficiency of the spray was quickly apparent. It was found that a larger amount and a greater strength of the tobacco liquid was required to kill the nearly full-grown nymphs, and also that only a very small number of the winged adults was destroyed by the spray.

After the killing strength of the blackleaf tobacco extract had been determined, several experiments covering areas of several acres each were undertaken in a number of vineyards. On the vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper about 6 acres of the worst infested portion of his vineyard was sprayed from July 14 to July 16, when the majority of the nymphs were small. Blackleaf tobacco extract was applied at a dilution of 1 gallon of the extract to 150 gallons of water. A traction sprayer was used and a pressure of from 75 to 125 pounds

¹ Containing 40 per cent of nicotine.

was carried. The cause of this great variation in pressure was due to the fact that it is impossible to wet the underside of all of the leaves if the machine is stopped at frequent intervals.

The spray was applied to the underside of the foliage by means of what is known in vineyard spraying operations as a "trailer"—that is, instead of delivering the spray to the foliage from nozzles attached to a fixed rod upon the spraying machine a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch hose from 20 to 40 feet long is attached to the discharge of the pump. To the free end of this lead of hose is connected a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch rod about 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet long carrying either one or two nozzles of the cyclone type set upward at right angles to the rod. This short rod is held by the operator and is thrust in among the leaves of the vine and quickly moved about and withdrawn, requiring rapid movements in order to cover the underside of all of the leaves and at the same time not waste much of the liquid. The operator must always bear in mind that the spray liquid must come in contact with each individual nymph that is to be destroyed. This is the only method known to us at present of making a liquid spray application effective. We have made several attempts to deliver the spray to the underside of the foliage by means of nozzles fixed to the machine but have achieved only partial success by that method.

By many vineyardists this "trailer" method of application has been considered slow and expensive. Yet, as worked out this season on the experimental plats of the Bureau of Entomology it has not proved more so than applications made for other vineyard pests.

The cost of the application on the vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper at North East, Pa., was as follows: Blackleaf tobacco extract at a dilution of 1 to 150 cost approximately one-half cent per gallon.

The area of vineyard covered per day was 3 acres, and the items of expense were as follows:

One man to operate spray rod.....per day--	\$1.75
Team to haul sprayer.....do-----	2.25
One boy to drive team.....do-----	1.00
Cost of spray liquid for 3 acres.....do-----	2.40
Total cost for 3 acres.....	7.40
Total cost per acre.....	2.47

A block of 11 acres of badly infested vineyard belonging to Mr. G. E. Pierce was sprayed July 14 to 16 with blackleaf extract, using 1 gallon of the extract to 100 gallons of water. The "trailer" method of application was employed as in the previous experiment. In this instance, however, two nozzles were used and about 200 gallons of liquid were applied per acre. This increase in the strength of the liquid and of the quantity employed raised the total cost of the application to \$3.75 per acre. A part of this increased cost of application, however, was occasioned by trouble with the water supply during



FIG. 1.—INJURY BY GRAPE LEAFHOPPER (*TYPHLOCYBA COMES*) TO UNSPRAYED VINES.
(ORIGINAL.)



FIG. 2.—PERFECT FOLIAGE OF SPRAYED VINES. VIEWS FROM EXPERIMENTAL PLATS
IN VINEYARD OF MR. H. H. HARPER, AT NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)

this spraying, and Mr. Pierce is confident that under favorable conditions the cost per acre could be materially reduced.

A portion of the vineyard on the farm of Mr. John Higgins which has been seriously infested by the grape leafhopper, to which he attributes the shrinkage of several thousand baskets of fruit during the past two or three seasons, was treated in the same manner as the vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper.

On three blocks, however, the strength was varied as follows: Blackleaf tobacco extract, 1 gallon to 75, to 100, and to 150 gallons of water. As far as could be observed the dilution to 150 gallons of water was as effective as that to 75 gallons. All of the applications mentioned above were made before any of the nymphs had completed the final molt, and all of them were highly effective in reducing the number of the nymphs to a point where their injury for the remainder of the season was very slight. On all of these treated blocks the foliage remained dark green and growth continued until quite late in the season, whereas in adjacent infested and unsprayed vineyards the foliage commenced to turn brown before the fruit was ready to pick. In fact, the sprayed and the unsprayed portions of these vineyards were readily distinguished within two or three weeks after the application was made, and the difference in the condition of the foliage became more marked as the season advanced.

Plate II shows photographs of vines taken in the experimental vineyard of Mr. H. H. Harper. Figure 1 is an unsprayed vine, and shows the exposure of the fruit by loss of a part of the foliage and also the withered condition of the leaves still attached to the vines, as a result of grape leafhopper injury. Figure 2 shows the perfect condition of the foliage on a vine growing in the adjacent row which was sprayed with tobacco extract. There is just as much fruit on the vine shown in figure 2 as on the vine shown in figure 1, but owing to the perfect condition of the foliage it can not be seen. The injurious effect of this pest upon the crop yield is cumulative. As a result of several seasons of infestation the cane growth of the vine is stunted during the growing season, and the final outcome is a sickly vine producing small clusters of poorly ripened fruit.

The owners of all of these vineyards were satisfied with the results of these experiments, and are planning to treat their entire vineyards with the tobacco extract next season if the insect is present in them in injurious numbers.

As the season advanced toward August 1, vineyardists began to observe the serious nature of the injury wrought by this pest. Most of them were unprepared to treat it, however, since they had no spraying material on hand, and many of the nymphs were passing from the last molt and developing wings. Nevertheless it was possible to undertake another experiment on the vineyard of Mr. Charles

Mottier on August 3. At this date many of the nymphs had developed to adults and these were very active.

The blackleaf tobacco extract was used at a strength of 1 gallon to 100 gallons of water and applied in the same manner as in the previous experiments. Evidence of injury, namely, the yellowing of the infested foliage, was already noticeable. Shortly after the application was made, however, it was observed that the yellowing and browning of the foliage ceased on the sprayed portion, whereas on the untreated portion of the vineyard it increased, and by the end of September the difference in color and vigor of the foliage on the two blocks was very marked, although not so much so as in the blocks that were sprayed about the middle of July before any of the nymphs had attained full growth and developed wings. This indicates that the best results can be obtained by treating the nymphs before they commence to make too heavy a drain on the vines. An additional reason why the earlier application of the tobacco extract is desirable is that if it is applied earlier in the season, when the nymphs are small, a weaker dilution may be used. There are thus several advantages for the earlier application: First, the cost of the material is reduced; second, the drain on the foliage wrought by the large numbers of nymphs is checked; and, third, the possibility of tainting the berries of the fruit with the taste of tobacco—a condition that was slightly noticeable upon the fruit in the vineyard which received the latest treatment of the season—is avoided.

CONCLUSION.

For several years past injury by the grape leafhopper in the vineyards of the Lake Erie Valley has been confined to limited areas. Its increase and dissemination during the season of 1910, however, should be a warning to the vineyardist to be prepared to combat it during the coming season if the adults are at all numerous when the vines "leaf out" in the spring.

On account of the inability of the nymphs to escape from the underside of the grape leaves and because of the soft and unprotected condition of their bodies the nymphal period is the most vulnerable stage of the insect. Unfortunately this is the stage at which the insects are the least conspicuous to the casual observer. For this reason in vineyards where the adults are common in early spring an examination of the underside of the foliage should be made during the early part of July. If the nymphs are at all numerous a single *thorough* spray application of blackleaf tobacco extract applied to the underside of the leaves before wings are developed will reduce their numbers to such an extent that those remaining will neither seriously curtail the growth of the vine nor impair the quality of the fruit.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,

BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97, Part II.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

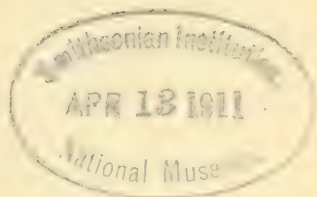
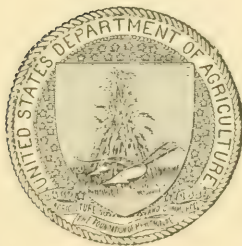
LIFE HISTORY OF THE CODLING MOTTH
AND ITS CONTROL ON PEARS
IN CALIFORNIA.

BY

S. W. FOSTER,

Agent and Expert, Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

ISSUED APRIL 1, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1911.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	13
Life-history notes on the codling moth in California.....	14
Overwintering larvæ.....	14
Spring brood of pupæ.....	14
Length of pupal period.....	15
Spring brood of moths.....	17
The first generation.....	18
First-brood eggs.....	18
Time of oviposition.....	18
Incubation period.....	19
First-brood larvæ.....	20
Time of hatching.....	20
Development of larvæ in fruit.....	20
Larval life in cocoon.....	21
First-brood pupæ.....	21
Time of pupation.....	21
Length of pupal period.....	21
First-brood moths.....	23
Life cycle of the first generation.....	24
The second generation.....	24
Second-brood eggs.....	24
Time of oviposition.....	24
Incubation period.....	24
Second-brood larvæ.....	25
Time of hatching.....	25
Development of larvæ in relation to fruit.....	25
Life of larvæ in fruit.....	25
Overwintering larvæ.....	26
Review of life history for the years 1909 and 1910.....	26
Band records.....	27
Natural enemies.....	32
Parasites.....	32
Predaceous enemies.....	32
The control of the codling moth on pears in California.....	32
Effect of sprays on places of entrance into pears by larvæ.....	33
Commercial results from spraying.....	41
Summary and recommendations.....	51

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

Page.

PLATE III. General view of the Whitman pear orchard, with power spraying outfit in operation in spraying experiments against codling moth, Concord, Cal., 1909.....	42
---	----

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 6. Weekly emergence of codling moths from overwintered material at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	18
7. Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	27
8. Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	27
9. Weekly emergence of codling moths from material collected from banded apple and pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.....	28
10. Band records from 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.....	29
11. Band records from 15 Bartlett pear trees at Suisun, Cal., 1910.....	30
12. Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.....	31
13. Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 15 pear trees at Suisun Cal., 1910.....	32
14. Band records of the codling moth from apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	32
15. Weekly emergence of codling moths from larvæ collected from banded apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909.....	33

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

LIFE HISTORY OF THE CODLING MOTH AND ITS CONTROL
ON PEARS IN CALIFORNIA.

By S. W. FOSTER,

Agent and Expert, Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTION.

The codling moth (*Carpocapsa pomonella* L.) in California presents certain differences in its life history as compared with what is true for the East, principally a lengthening of the respective stages, due to a lower mean temperature during their period of development, especially in the first generation. As remedial measures can only be properly prescribed when based on a complete knowledge of the insect to be controlled, such observations as were possible on the life history of the insect in the vicinity of Walnut Creek were made during the seasons of 1909 and 1910. These, with field notes from other sections during 1910, are given in the following pages. For comparison, and also to further supplement the writer's own observations, some data from San Jose, Cal., are included, as secured by Mr. F. L. Young, of the Bureau of Entomology, working under the direction of Mr. P. R. Jones.

The pear crop of California suffers much from injury by the codling moth, and in view of the commercial importance of this crop, the losses represent in the aggregate a large item. The injury is especially important on green fruit destined for shipment to eastern markets, but even in the case of drying stock there is without doubt an important deterioration in quality. The results of experiments reported in this paper show that much may be done to lessen this damage by two or three timely applications of poison sprays, and it is hoped the recommendations may prove of value to California pear growers.

The writer desires to acknowledge the assistance of Mr. E. J. Hoddy, formerly of this bureau, in helping with part of the spraying experiments and in taking results. Also, to express thanks to

Mr. G. W. Whitman and Dr. F. W. Bancroft, of Concord, Cal., and Mr. G. W. Langdon, of Suisun, Cal., for their hearty cooperation in furnishing labor and material to help in the experiments.

LIFE-HISTORY NOTES ON THE CODLING MOTH IN CALIFORNIA.

OVERWINTERING LARVÆ.

Many codling-moth larvæ could be found in the orchards and around the packing sheds during the winter of 1908-9, but all observations go to show that a comparatively small percentage of the larvæ maturing in fruit the previous season went through the winter successfully. This may be partly explained by the fact that the pears are picked and taken to the sheds while a large percentage of the second-brood larvæ is still in the fruit. Many of these larvæ are destroyed or taken so far away that the adults fail to get back to the trees in spring. However, larvæ were frequently found under old burlap bands left on trees, and in the cracks and crevices and under rough bark.

SPRING BROOD OF PUPÆ.

The earliest date of actual pupation was not observed, but the first pupa was found on March 11, 1909. In removing the bands from seven pear trees in the Ygnacio Valley near Walnut Creek, 8 larvæ and 2 pupæ were found. The next day, March 12, 32 larvæ and 6 pupæ were found in the same orchard. March 22, another search showed 7 larvæ and 6 pupæ. On March 23, while looking through some boxes at a vinegar factory, 16 larvæ and 9 pupæ were found. These boxes had been kept under shelter during winter. One freshly shed pupal skin was found in the corner of a box, indicating that the first larva had perhaps pupated in February. On March 27, 14 pupæ and 1 pupal skin but no larvæ were found under bands.

The larvæ collected on these dates, together with a small sending from San Jose, were kept separately in vials, with bits of paper and cloth, for pupal records. Records kept at San Jose showed the first pupa on February 20. (See Table III.)

During February, 1910, about 300 larvæ secured from banded trees the previous season were put in vials for individual pupation records. Four of these larvæ had pupated by March 12. Of the 118 which produced adults in spring, 95 had pupated by March 31 and all had pupated April 10. The dates of pupation are given in Table II. Practically all larvæ under observation out of doors at the laboratory at Walnut Creek in 1909 and 1910 and San Jose in 1909 had pupated by the last of April, giving some two months during which larvæ transformed to pupæ. From the appearance of the first pupa, February 20, till the emergence of the last moths from overwintering

larvæ, in early June, gives some three months for the transformation period of all the overwintering larvæ to adults.

Length of pupal period.—The time spent in the pupal stage varies considerably for different individuals, but all of this brood in 1909 required a month or more, the average time being 39.54 days. (The period of emergence of moths lasts some two months, from the first to the last appearing individuals.) Individual records were started in the spring of 1909 for 128 larvæ, but moths emerged from only 68. These records are given in Table I.

TABLE I.—*Dates of pupation, duration of pupal period, and dates of emergence of moths of the spring brood from overwintering larvæ, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.
	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.			Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence.	
			<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>
1.....	Mar. 11	Apr. 20	40	25.....	Mar. 27	May 6	40	49.....	Apr. 4	May 17	43
2.....	16	20	35	26.....	27	6	40	50.....	4	17	43
3.....	16	27	42	27.....	29	7	39	51.....	5	17	42
4.....	16	24	39	28.....	29	6	38	52.....	5	22	47
5.....	17	21	35	29.....	30	7	38	53.....	5	19	44
6.....	17	22	36	30.....	30	7	38	54.....	7	24	47
7.....	May 1	45	31.....	30	30	7	38	55.....	20	26	36
8.....	17	2	46	32.....	Apr. 1	6	35	56.....	21	26	35
9.....	18	11	54	33.....	1	7	36	57.....	20	25	35
10.....	18	2	45	34.....	1	8	37	58.....	20	27	37
11.....	18	1	44	35.....	1	9	38	59.....	22	29	37
12.....	18	3	46	36.....	2	9	37	60.....	22	24	32
13.....	19	4	46	37.....	2	9	37	61.....	22	-----	-----
14.....	19	9	51	38.....	2	9	37	62.....	26	29	33
15.....	19	4	46	39.....	2	10	38	63.....	27	30	33
16.....	21	4	44	40.....	2	10	38	64.....	25	28	33
17.....	21	2	42	41.....	2	11	39	65.....	21	28	37
18.....	22	5	44	42.....	2	20	48	66.....	16	25	39
19.....	22	5	44	43.....	4	10	36	67.....	16	26	40
20.....	23	5	43	44.....	4	12	38	68.....	18	30	42
21.....	25	6	42	45.....	4	13	39				
22.....	25	4	40	46.....	4	13	39				
23.....	27	5	39	47.....	4	14	40				
24.....	27	6	40	48.....	4	17	43				
									Average.....		39.54
									Maximum.....		54.00
									Minimum.....		32.00

From some 300 larvæ put in vials for individual records in February, 1910, 118 completed pupation and produced adults. Records of these are given in Table II. As will be seen, the pupal period was shorter for the spring brood in 1910 than was the case in 1909. In 1910 the minimum was 21 days, with a maximum of 46, averaging 30.86 days for all individuals under observation, as against an average of 39.54 days in 1909.

TABLE II.—*Dates of pupation, duration of pupal period, and dates of emergence of moths of spring brood from overwintering larvæ, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.
	Pupa- tion.	Emer- gence.			Pupa- tion.	Emer- gence.			Pupa- tion.	Emer- gence.	
			<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>
1.....	Mar. 12	Apr. 17	36	42.....	Mar. 20	Apr. 18	29	82.....	Mar. 25	Apr. 27	33
2.....	12	17	36	43.....	20	22	33	83.....	26	26	31
3.....	12	16	35	44.....	20	30	41	84.....	26	28	33
4.....	13	18	36	45.....	20	20	31	85.....	27	30	34
5.....	13	18	36	46.....	20	20	31	86.....	28	30	33
6.....	13	17	35	47.....	20	24	35	87.....	28	30	33
7.....	14	14	32	48.....	21	May 1	41	88.....	28	May 3	36
8.....	14	16	34	49.....	21	Apr. 18	28	89.....	28	May 7	40
9.....	14	17	35	50.....	21	22	32	90.....	29	2	34
10.....	15	17	34	51.....	21	23	33	91.....	30	Apr. 30	31
11.....	15	17	34	52.....	21	24	34	92.....	31	May 4	34
12.....	15	14	30	53.....	21	24	34	93.....	31	9	39
13.....	16	18	33	54.....	21	21	31	94.....	31	12	42
14.....	16	18	33	55.....	21	24	34	95.....	31	3	33
15.....	16	16	31	56.....	21	20	30	96.....	Apr. 1	6	35
16.....	16	20	35	57.....	21	20	30	97.....	2	Apr. 24	22
17.....	17	16	30	58.....	21	21	33	98.....	2	27	25
18.....	17	21	35	59.....	21	23	33	100.....	2	30	28
19.....	17	15	29	60.....	21	22	32	101.....	2	28	26
20.....	17	17	31	61.....	21	18	28	102.....	2	May 3	31
21.....	17	May 2	46	62.....	22	22	31	103.....	2	Apr. 26	24
22.....	17	Apr. 21	35	63.....	22	22	31	104.....	2	May 3	31
23.....	17	20	34	64.....	22	24	33	105.....	4	6	32
24.....	17	16	30	65.....	22	22	31	106.....	5	9	34
25.....	18	18	31	66.....	22	24	33	107.....	6	Apr. 30	24
26.....	18	18	31	67.....	22	26	35	108.....	8	May 6	28
27.....	18	19	32	68.....	22	23	32	109.....	8	7	29
28.....	18	16	29	69.....	22	28	37	110.....	8	11	33
29.....	19	20	32	70.....	22	18	27	111.....	8	Apr. 29	21
30.....	19	18	30	71.....	22	21	30	112.....	9	30	21
31.....	19	16	28	72.....	22	20	29	113.....	9	May 14	35
32.....	19	22	34	73.....	22	22	31	114.....	9	10	31
33.....	19	17	29	74.....	22	22	31	115.....	9	6	27
34.....	19	17	28	75.....	22	23	32	116.....	9	6	27
35.....	19	24	36	76.....	22	22	31	117.....	10	5	25
36.....	19	16	28	77.....	22	20	29	118.....	10	7	27
37.....	19	16	28	78.....	24	23	30				
38.....	20	22	23	79.....	24	26	33		Average.....		30.86
39.....	20	21	32	80.....	24	27	34		Maximum.....		46.00
40.....	20	24	35	81.....	24	26	33		Minimum.....		21.00
41.....	20	21	32								

Table III gives records for 31 larvæ which pupated in vials out of doors at San Jose, Cal., in the spring of 1909.

TABLE III.—*Dates of pupation, duration of pupal period, and dates of emergence of moths of spring brood from overwintering larvæ, San Jose, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.	Individual No.	Date of—		Pupal period.
	Pupa- tion.	Emer- gence.			Pupa- tion.	Emer- gence.			Pupa- tion.	Emer- gence.	
			<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>				<i>Days.</i>
1.....	Feb. 20	Apr. 17	56	13.....	Mar. 11	Apr. 28	48	25.....	Mar. 9	Apr. 28	50
2.....	Mar. 5	26	52	14.....	4	26	53	26.....	24	28	35
3.....	29	May 3	35	15.....	13	May 1	49	27.....	24	28	35
4.....	Apr. 9	11	32	16.....	12	Apr. 29	48	28.....	29	28	30
5.....	Mar. 23	3	41	17.....	Apr. 6	May 10	34	29.....	Apr. 1	May 3	32
6.....	15	3	49	18.....	Mar. 8	Apr. 28	51	30.....	12	4	22
7.....	26	3	38	19.....	Apr. 1	May 3	32	31.....	12	17	35
8.....	27	3	37	20.....	1	3	32				
9.....	9	Apr. 26	48	21.....	1	3	32		Average.....		40.61
10.....	4	26	53	22.....	Mar. 29	3	35		Maximum.....		56.00
11.....	Apr. 1	May 1	30	23.....	9	Apr. 28	50		Minimum.....		22.00
12.....	Mar. 30	6	37	24.....	9	26	48				

SPRING BROOD OF MOTHS.

It is probable that the first adult appeared in 1909 about March 23. On this date an apparently freshly shed pupal skin was found, and another was found in the field on March 27. Bartlett pears were at this time just about in full bloom. The first moths were seen in the field on April 17. During spraying operations in a pear orchard three active moths were seen in the trees in the early forenoon. Others were seen on April 19, and on May 5 several were observed among trees in the corner of the orchard near the packing shed. The first moth appeared at the laboratory on April 9 from the lot of pupæ collected in the field March 11 to 22. These pupæ were kept in glass jars out of doors, but some were injured, and only three moths emerged, namely, on April 9, 13, and 14. The individual records show moths emerging from April 17 to May 30 (detailed in Tables I, II, and III). This material was kept in jars out of doors in the shade.

On May 6, 1909, several bands which had been on trees over winter were removed, and these, as also the trunks of the trees, examined closely. Thirty-six shed pupal skins were found, but no larvæ or pupæ, indicating that most of the moths had emerged by this time.

In the spring of 1910 moths emerged in numbers somewhat earlier than in 1909. Individuals were seen in the orchard April 9, during spraying, although no moths emerged at the laboratory until April 14. At Suisun, Cal., April 5, while examining the trunks of trees for the presence of larvæ and pupæ, many apparently freshly shed pupal skins were found on the bark. The next day, April 6, at Courtland, Sacramento County, Cal., shed pupal skins were even more apparent in comparison with the number of larvæ and pupæ found on the trees. At this time in the two last-mentioned places the petals had been off the trees for some days, and it is generally conceded that these sections are a week or ten days earlier than in the vicinity of Walnut Creek. Table IV shows the emergence of moths from overwintering larvæ at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909-10.

TABLE IV.—*Emergence of moths from overwintering larvæ, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909 and 1910.*

Date.	Number of moths emerging—		Date.	Number of moths emerging—		Date.	Number of moths emerging—		Date.	Number of moths emerging—	
	1909	1910		1909	1910		1909	1910		1909	1910
Apr. 14...	0	2	Apr. 26...	0	5	May 8...	1	0	May 20...	1	0
15...	0	1	27...	1	3	9...	5	2	21...	0	0
16...	0	9	28...	0	3	10...	3	1	22...	1	0
17...	0	9	29...	0	1	11...	2	1	23...	0	0
18...	0	10	30...	0	8	12...	1	1	24...	2	0
19...	0	1	May 1...	2	0	13...	2	0	25...	2	0
20...	2	9	2...	3	3	14...	1	1	26...	3	0
21...	1	7	3...	1	4	15...	0	0	27...	1	0
22...	1	11	4...	4	1	16...	0	0	28...	2	0
23...	0	5	5...	4	1	17...	4	0	29...	2	0
24...	1	9	6...	6	5	18...	0	0	30...	2	0
25...	0	0	7...	5	3	19...	1	0	31...	0	0

Table V gives the emergence of moths from a quantity of overwintering material kept at San Jose, Cal. The emergence record is shown graphically in figure 6.

TABLE V.—*Emergence of moths of the spring brood, San Jose, Cal., 1909, from overwintering larvæ collected on banded apple trees.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.
Apr. 27.....	5	May 4.....	30	May 10.....	47	May 15.....	24
28.....	1	5.....	36	11.....	11	16.....	23
30.....	9	7.....	34	12.....	20	17.....	24
May 1.....	36	8.....	23	13.....	10		
2.....	34	9.....	20	14.....	14	Total....	426
3.....	25						

THE FIRST GENERATION.

FIRST-BROOD EGGS.

Time of oviposition.—No eggs were laid in breeding cages in 1909 until May 7, but numerous eggs were found in the orchard on May 5,

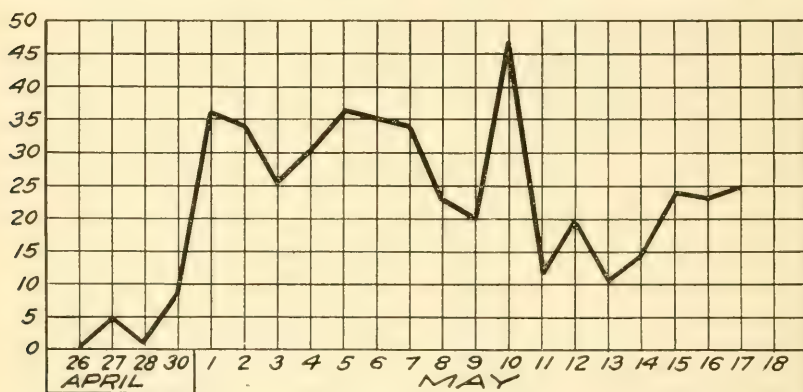


FIG. 6.—Weekly emergence of codling moths from overwintered material at San Jose, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

18 of which were collected, mostly showing black heads of larvæ. These were carried to the laboratory and kept out of doors, the first hatching May 7; 14 more had hatched by May 15; the others failed to hatch. On May 11 eggs were numerous on the fruit and foliage in the field, and 8 recently hatched larvæ were found on two trees near the packing shed. As the average period of incubation was about 21 days at this time, the approximate date for first oviposition in the field would be April 15. Since practically all moths in the field had emerged by May 6, it is not probable that any eggs were deposited in the field after May 15. The last eggs were secured in cages at the laboratory on May 12. Although many moths emerged after this date in the glass jars, very few were alive at any one time.

Corresponding with the time of emergence of moths, eggs were deposited earlier in 1910 than was the case in 1909. On April 25 at

Walnut Creek, three eggs were found on foliage in the field, and on May 2 eggs were numerous throughout the valley. At Suisun, Cal., larvæ were hatching April 29, and on May 3 young larvæ were quite numerous in some of the warmer sections of Suisun Valley, indicating that eggs were deposited in numbers some two to three weeks before, that is, from the 12th to the 20th of April.

Incubation period.—One noticeable difference between the life history of the codling moth in California and in the country east of the Rocky Mountains is the increased length of time required for incubation of the first-brood eggs. As a rule there is considerable cool weather, especially at night, during the months of April and May. This was especially noticeable in the vicinity of Walnut Creek in 1909. The time required for incubation varied from 17 to 22 days, averaging 20.05 days for the individuals under observation. The individual record for 56 eggs, deposited from May 8 to 11, are given in Table VI.

In the spring of 1910 the period of incubation was not observed individually for many eggs, but all indications were that the incubation period varied from a minimum of 15 days to a maximum of over 30 days, with the majority requiring about 25 days.

TABLE VI.—*Life cycle of the first generation, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—					Days for—				
	Egg deposition (night).	Hatching.	Larva leaving fruit.	Pupation.	Emergence of moths.	Incubation.	Feeding of larva.	Making of co-con.	Pupal period.	Total life cycle.
1.....	May 8	May 29				21				
2.....	8	29				21				
3.....	8	28				20				
4.....	8	28				20				
5.....	8	28				20				
6.....	8	28	June 24	July 1	July 21	20	27	7	23	77
7.....	8	28	27			20	30			
8.....	8	28	29	4	25	20	32	5	21	78
9.....	8	29	29	5	23	21	31	6	18	76
10.....	8	28				20				
11.....	8	29	24	2	18	21	26	8	16	71
12.....	8	29	24			21	26			
13.....	8	29	29			21	31			
14.....	8	29				21				
15.....	8	28	24			20	27			
16.....	8	30	24	June 30		22	25	6		
17.....	8	30	23	30		22	24	7		
18.....	8	30				22				
19.....	8	26				18				
20.....	8	26				18				
21.....	8	26	23	30	18	18	28	7	18	71
22.....	9	27				18				
23.....	9	27				18				
24.....	9	27	30			18	34			
25.....	9	28	29	July 6	21	19	32	7	15	73
26.....	9	28				19				
27.....	9	29	July 9			20	41			
28.....	9	27				18				
29.....	9	27				18				
30.....	9	27				18				
31.....	9	27	June 26	5	21	18	30	9	16	73
32.....	9	30				21				
33.....	9	30				21				
34.....	9	29	24			20	26			
35.....	9									
36.....	9	30	24	5	21	21	25	11	16	75

TABLE VI.—*Life cycle of the first generation, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909—Continued.*

Individual No.	Date of—					Days for—				
	Egg deposition (night).	Hatching.	Larva leaving fruit.	Pupation.	Emergence of moths.	Incubation.	Feeding of larva.	Making of cocoon.	Pupal period.	Total life cycle.
37.....	May 9	May 30	July 1	July 6	July 25	21	32	5	19	77
38.....	9	30	2	6	25	21	33	4	19	77
39.....	9	30	29			21	30			
40.....	9									
41.....	9	30				21				
42.....	9	30	25			21	26			
43.....	9	30				21				
44.....	9	29	27		19	20	29			
45.....	9	29	24			20	26			
46.....	9	30	28			21	29			
47.....	9	30				21				
48.....	9	30	1			21	32			
49.....	9	30				21				
50.....	9	30	11			21	42			
51.....	9	30				21				
52.....	9	30				21				
53.....	9	30	June 28	6	22	21	29	8	16	74
54.....	10	29				19				
55.....	10	29	30			19	32			
56.....	10	27	30	6	20	17	34	6	14	71

SUMMARY.

Observations.	Days for—				
	Incubation.	Feeding of larva.	Making of cocoon.	Pupal period.	Total life cycle.
Average.....	20.05	29.97	6.85	17.58	74.25
Maximum.....	22.00	42.00	11.00	23.00	78.00
Minimum.....	17.00	24.00	4.00	14.00	71.00

FIRST-BROOD LARVÆ.

Time of hatching.—The first larvæ under observation in 1909 hatched May 7 from eggs brought in from the field. On May 11, 8 recently hatched larvæ were found in the orchard. On this same date, May 11, 1910, young larvæ were quite numerous in the field. At Suisun, Cal., in 1910, the first larva was found April 29, and recently hatched larvæ were quite numerous by May 3. Very young larvæ were found continuously until the 1st of June. Larvæ at laboratory hatched May 26 to 30, and it is very likely that all first-brood eggs in the field had hatched and all larvæ were in fruit by this time.

Development of larvæ in fruit.—Of the larvæ hatching under observation in 1909, only 29 reached full development in the fruit, requiring from 25 to 42 days. The individual records are given in Table VI. The first larva to leave the fruit in the field was not observed, but on June 5 three newly formed pupæ and 20 full-grown larvæ were found under bands on 21 pear trees, and 4 pupæ and 28

full-grown larvæ were found under bands on 10 apple trees. The time from leaving fruit to pupation for this brood, averaging $7\frac{1}{4}$ days, would indicate that the first full-grown larvæ left fruit in late May. Band records and data obtained by bringing in quantities of wormy fruit picked from trees in May showed a maximum number of first-brood larvæ leaving fruit June 14 to 26. However, later-maturing larvæ of this brood left fruit as late as July 21.

In the summer of 1910 many full-grown larvæ had left the fruit prior to the 1st of June. At Walnut Creek on June 1, 4 pupæ and 248 larvæ were taken from the bands on 11 apple trees, and at Suisun on June 3, 10 pupæ and 45 larvæ were taken from bands on 15 pear trees.

Larval life in cocoon.—The time spent from leaving fruit to pupating varied from 3 to 23 days, with an average of $7\frac{1}{4}$ days. These records were made from 165 larvæ which left fruit from June 7 to July 21 and kept in large shell vials out-of-doors. The records for 110 individuals will be seen in Table VII. All larvæ were put in vials with bits of paper and cloth, and the vials turned upside down on a glass plate for a few days. The larvæ usually "cocooned" within 24 hours after leaving the fruit and the records show the normal time. After the cocoon had been made the vials were placed open end up and covered with cheesecloth.

FIRST-BROOD PUPÆ.

Time of pupation.—The first pupæ were found in the field June 5, 1909, when a total of 7 were taken with 49 larvæ under bands from 21 pear and 10 apple trees. In 1910 pupæ were found June 1 and were plentiful in the vicinity of Suisun and Walnut Creek by June 5. At the laboratory the first larva pupated June 12, which had left fruit on June 7. The maximum number of pupæ from material collected under bands and larvæ leaving fruit at the laboratory occurred from June 20 to 30.

Length of pupal period.—Records kept out-of-doors for 165 individuals gave a minimum of 10 days and a maximum of 27 days with an average of $16\frac{1}{2}$ days for the time spent in the pupal stage. The records for 110 individuals will be found in Table VII.

The total time from leaving fruit to the emergence of adults varied from 20 to 47 days, averaging 25.69 days for the individuals under observation.

TABLE VII.—Length of time as larva in cocoon, length of pupal stage, and total time spent from leaving fruit to emergence of adult, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.

Individual No.	Date of—			Days for—		
	Larva leaving the fruit.	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence of moth.	Making of cocoon	Pupal period.	Total period in cocoon.
1.	June 7		July 11			34
2.	8	June 14	4	6	20	26
3.	9	17	6	8	19	27
4.	9	20	8	11	18	29
5.	10	14	4	4	20	24
6.	11	14	6	3	22	25
7.	12		29			47
8.	11	22	11	11	19	30
9.	10	22	11	12	19	31
10.	10	15	7	5	22	27
11.	10	19	5	9	16	25
12.	10	20	7	10	17	27
13.	10	17	5	7	18	25
14.	11	24	17	13	23	36
15.	11	23	10	12	17	29
16.	11	20	8	9	18	27
17.	11		20			39
18.	11	21	8	10	17	27
19.	12	20	6	8	16	24
20.	12	20	8	8	18	26
21.	12	23	8	11	15	26
22.	12	20	7	8	17	25
23.	12	15	4	3	19	22
24.	12	23	8	11	15	26
25.	12		20			38
26.	12	20	7	8	17	25
27.	12	21	7	9	16	25
28.	12	20	7	8	17	25
29.	12	21	11	9	20	29
30.	12	19	6	7	17	24
31.	12	16	7	4	21	25
32.	12	22	7	10	15	25
33.	12	19	5	7	16	23
34.	12	20	6	8	16	24
35.	12	20	6	8	16	24
36.	12	21	8	9	17	26
37.	12	19	5	7	16	23
38.	12	21	7	9	16	25
39.	12	20	6	8	16	24
40.	12	18	5	6	17	23
41.	12	20	6	8	16	24
42.	12	20	7	8	17	25
43.	12	21	7	9	16	25
44.	12	20	7	8	17	25
45.	11	16	4	5	18	23
46.	11	4	19	23	15	38
47.	11	19	5	8	16	24
48.	11	21	11	10	20	30
49.	11	20	7	9	17	26
50.	11	20	6	9	16	25
51.	11	20	6	9	16	25
52.	11	21	7	10	16	26
53.	14	23	11	9	18	27
54.	14	22	11	8	19	27
55.	14	24	11	10	17	27
56.	14	24	11	10	17	27
57.	14	24	11	10	17	27
58.	15	23	11	8	18	26
59.	15	26	19	11	23	34
60.	15	24	11	9	17	26
61.	15	24	11	9	17	26
62.	15	24	10	9	16	25
63.	16	23	10	7	17	24
64.	16	24	12	8	18	26
65.	17	24	12	7	18	25
66.	18	26	23	8	27	35
67.	20	27	13	7	16	23
68.	20	24	12	4	18	22
69.	20	30	20	10	20	30
70.	20	28	16	8	18	26
71.	20	24	16	4	22	26
72.	20	23	10	3	17	20
73.	20	23	11	3	18	21
74.	20	24	10	4	16	20
75.	20	24	12	4	18	22
76.	20	28	11	8	13	21
77.	20	26	11	6	15	21
78.	17	23	11	6	18	24

TABLE VII.—*Length of time as larva in cocoon, length of pupal stage, and total time spent from leaving fruit to emergence of adult, Walnut Creek, Cal.—Continued.*

Individual No.	Date of—			Days for—		
	Larva leaving the fruit.	Pupa-tion.	Emer-gence of moth.	Making of cocoon.	Pupal period.	Total period in cocoon.
79.....	June 18	June 24	July 13	6	19	25
80.....	19	24	11	5	17	22
81.....	19	27	13	8	16	24
82.....	19	24	10	5	16	21
83.....	19	24	10	5	16	21
84.....	19	29	13	10	14	24
85.....	21	29	13	8	14	22
86.....	21	29	13	8	14	22
87.....	21	30	15	9	15	24
88.....	21	28	13	7	15	22
89.....	21	29	13	8	14	22
90.....	21	29	20	8	21	29
91.....	21	28	13	7	15	25
92.....	21	29	16	8	17	25
93.....	21	29	12	8	13	21
94.....	21	29	12	8	13	21
95.....	24	29	29	5	30	35
96.....	24	30	21	6	21	27
97.....	24	30	21	6	21	27
98.....	24	29	20	5	21	26
99.....	24	30	16	6	16	22
100.....	24	July 1	16	7	15	22
101.....	24	2	18	8	16	24
102.....	24	2	16	8	14	22
103.....	24	2	16	8	14	22
104.....	24	2	20	8	18	26
105.....	26	3	20	7	17	24
106.....	26	1	16	5	15	20
107.....	26	1	16	5	15	20
108.....	26	2	21	6	19	25
109.....	26	4	21	8	17	25
110.....	26	2	22	6	20	26

Total period from leaving of fruit by larva to emergence of moth:

Days.

Average.....	25.69
Maximum.....	47.00
Minimum.....	20.00

SUMMARY.

Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.	Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.	Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.	Length of time larvæ and pupæ remain in cocoon.	No. of individuals.
<i>Days.</i>		<i>Days.</i>		<i>Days.</i>		<i>Days.</i>	
20	2	25	21	30	3	36	1
21	9	26	16	31	1	38	2
22	13	27	12	34	2	39	1
23	5	29	4	35	2	47	1
24	15						

FIRST-BROOD MOTHS.

Moths began to emerge June 17 from larvæ and pupæ collected under bands June 5, reaching a maximum emergence some two weeks later, July 4 to 15. Eggs were plentiful on fruit and foliage of unsprayed trees July 7, indicating that many moths were out previous to that time. The first moths from larvæ maturing in wormy fruit brought into the laboratory emerged June 22, but comparatively few emerged from this time until early July. June 28 to 30 many recently shed pupal skins were found under some old burlap bands and in cracks and crevices of bark on unsprayed trees.

LIFE CYCLE OF THE FIRST GENERATION.

From the earliest appearing eggs in spring, about April 15, to the first appearing moths, June 17, gives some 63 days as the approximate length of the life cycle of the first generation. The laboratory records for individuals kept in breeding cages give a life cycle of 71 to 78 days. This, however, is based on only 12 individuals, which completed the cycle, and are recorded in Table VI. Careful observation indicates the length of time of the first generation to be from 60 to 70 days.

THE SECOND GENERATION.

SECOND-BROOD EGGS.

Time of oviposition.—A number of moths which emerged at the laboratory in late June and early July were put in rearing cages containing small branches of fruit and leaves and also fruit juices and sugar for food. The first eggs were deposited July 3. Some of the moths died before depositing eggs. On June 28, 1909, while looking after spraying operations in the field, frequent searches were made in the unsprayed block, but no eggs were found. During another search on July 7 among these trees many eggs were found and 5 larvæ just hatched, none of which had entered fruit, were found during the forenoon. Eggs were being deposited in large numbers in rearing cages July 8 to 10.

Incubation period.—The time required for incubation was less than half that required for the first-brood eggs. In cages this varied from $7\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ days, and averaged $8\frac{1}{4}$ days. The weather at this time was usually warm throughout the day with comparatively cool nights. In Table VIII are recorded incubation periods for several groups of eggs deposited between July 3 and 29. It will be noticed that eggs deposited July 10, 11, 26, and 28 required shorter time for incubation than others. Both of these periods were followed by 3 to 4 days of very warm weather.

TABLE VIII.—Incubation periods of second-brood eggs, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.

Observation No.	Number of eggs.	Date of—		Period of incubation.	Observation No.	Number of eggs.	Date of—		Period of incubation.
		Egg deposition (night).	Hatching of eggs.				Egg deposition (night).	Hatching of eggs.	
1.....	3	July 3	July 12	Days. 8	10.....	45	July 15	July 24	Days. 8
2.....	4	6	16	9	11.....	35	16	25	8
3.....	4	7	16	8	12.....	20	17	26	8
4.....	10	7	16	8	13.....	12	20	29	8
5.....	15	8	17	8	14.....	70	24	Aug. 2	8
6.....	19	10	18	7	15.....	75	26	3	7
7.....	15	11	19	7	16.....	60	28	5	7
8.....	14	12	22	9	17.....	40	29	6	8
9.....	11	13	23	9	18.....	9	Aug. 1	12	10

Incubation period:

Average.....	Days. 8.05
Maximum.....	10.00
Minimum.....	7.00

SECOND-BROOD LARVÆ.

Time of hatching.—July 12 was the date of first hatching of larvæ at the laboratory. These were from eggs deposited the night of July 3. As several adults had emerged and died previous to this date, it was not the actual beginning of the egg-laying period. Second-brood larvæ were hatching in numbers July 18 to 20.

On July 7 careful search in the field showed 5 very young larvæ. From July 10 to 12 second-brood larvæ were plentiful; from July 15 to 18 they were numerous, and by this time their work was showing a great deal on the unsprayed trees. Occasionally 3 and 4 entrance holes were found in a single pear.

Development of larvæ in relation to fruit.—The first picking of pears in the orchard where the spraying experiment was carried out in 1909 began July 15 and lasted 5 days. During this time young larvæ were hatching and entering the fruit in numbers in the unsprayed block, so that even the earliest first picking of fruit did not wholly escape the second-brood larvæ. In 1910 many second-brood larvæ were in the fruit before the first picking. The second and third pickings, coming later, are worse injured. The third or last picking receives practically the full force of the second-brood larvæ. In many orchards this picking will run 70 per cent wormy. The third picking of pears on the unsprayed block in 1909 showed an average of 75 per cent wormy, while in 1910 practically all of the pears left on the trees in the check blocks were wormy.

Life of larvæ in fruit.—The period covered by the life of the larvæ in the fruit was not positively determined for a very large number of second-brood larvæ. The harvesting of the fruit takes a large percentage of the larvæ to the packing shed before they reach full development.

At the laboratory several hundred individual records were started, but the quick rotting of some of the fruit during a short absence destroyed part of the records. The first larvæ left the fruit August 6, 1909, at the laboratory, but in the field comparatively few larvæ as a rule reach their full development before the fruit is all harvested, which is about the middle of August. In the summer of 1910 the first full-grown larvæ of the second brood were found at Suisun July 26, and at Walnut Creek on August 1. At this time practically all pears around Suisun and about two-thirds of the crop in the vicinity of Walnut Creek had been harvested.

Records for 63 individuals which went through in sound or nearly sound fruit out-of-doors at the laboratory in 1909 are given in Table IX. As may be seen, this gives about 26 days for the period of the larvæ in the fruit.

TABLE IX.—*Feeding periods of second-brood larvæ in pears, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Individual No.	Date of—		Period of feeding.	Individual No.	Date of—		Period of feeding.	Individual No.	Date of—		Period of feeding.
	Hatch-ing.	Leaving the fruit.			Hatch-ing.	Leaving the fruit.			Hatch-ing.	Leaving the fruit.	
1...	July 12	Aug. 18	<i>Days.</i> 37	22...	July 25	Aug. 26	<i>Days.</i> 32	43...	Aug. 2	Aug. 20	<i>Days.</i> 18
2a...	12	14	33	23a...	26	20	25	44...	2	20	18
3...	12	19	38	24...	26	20	25	45...	2	22	20
4a...	16	13	28	25...	26	23	28	46...	2	27	25
5a...	16	21	36	26...	26	22	27	47...	2	29	27
6a...	16	14	29	27...	26	20	25	48...	2	26	24
7a...	16	16	31	28...	26	21	26	49...	2	26	24
8a...	16	21	36	29...	28	18	21	50...	2	29	27
9a...	24	19	26	30...	28	21	24	51...	3	27	24
10...	24	20	27	31...	29	25	27	52...	3	21	18
11a...	24	19	26	32...	29	21	23	53...	3	29	26
12...	24	21	28	33...	29	28	30	54...	3	31	28
13...	24	27	34	34...	29	22	24	55...	3	26	23
14...	24	21	28	35...	29	19	21	56...	3	27	24
15...	24	28	35	36...	29	23	25	57...	4	25	21
16...	25	18	24	37...	29	24	26	58...	4	28	24
17a...	25	20	26	38...	29	Sept. 8	41	59...	6	31	27
18...	25	18	24	39...	29	Aug. 12	14	60...	6	Sept. 1	26
19...	25	26	32	40...	29	13	15	61...	6	Aug. 29	23
20...	25	21	27	41...	Aug. 2	26	24	62...	6	31	25
21...	25	27	33	42...	2	24	22	63...	6	31	25

a Pupated and moth emerged in September.

Feeding period:	<i>Days.</i>
Average.....	26.34
Maximum.....	41.00
Minimum.....	14.00

Overwintering larvæ.—The first larvæ not pupating but going into winter cocoons in 1909 were taken from bands July 17. Of 78 larvæ taken on this date, 38 pupated and adults emerged, 28 died, and 20 went through the winter as larvæ. Of 196 larvæ and pupæ collected under bands on June 28, 1910, 5 did not pupate but wintered as larvæ in cocoons. After this date the percentage of overwintering larvæ increased. However, some adults emerged as late as September 18. With the development of the second brood there was a marked increase in the number of overwintering larvæ. Of some 95 to 100 larvæ developing in fruit out-of-doors at the laboratory, only 9 pupated. These were Nos. 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 17, and 23 in Table IX. Adults emerged 17 to 36 days after leaving fruit. This would give some 6 to 7 weeks for the life of the individuals of the second generation.

REVIEW OF LIFE HISTORY FOR THE YEARS 1909 AND 1910.

There are practically two full broods of larvæ each year in the interior counties of California. It is not easy to distinguish definitely between the two generations by field observations alone, and to know just when all the first-brood larvæ are in the fruit, although there is a period of some weeks each summer during which very few eggs are laid. Taking into consideration the difference in time required for development of eggs and larvæ, and the fact that the pears are picked before very many of the second-brood larvæ leave the fruit, it is difficult to determine the division of generations by band records. Some growers report that young larvæ are hatching and entering fruit

almost continuously from April to August, inclusive, and do not recognize the broods at all. However, it is well to know when these broods appear, and what is meant by the term "brood."

The overwintering larvæ pupate in spring; the moths emerging from these in late April and during May deposit eggs which hatch into the first-brood worms. This brood is usually comparatively small and the injury not severe. Some growers are inclined to overlook the importance of this brood, and many fail to notice any worms until the second brood begins to show just prior to first picking. The second is by far

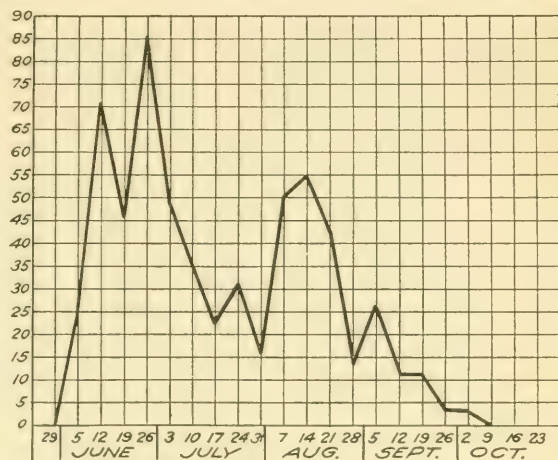


FIG. 7.—Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

the more destructive of the two broods, both by reason of its numbers and because of the stage of the fruit when it appears. The first-brood worms reach their development usually during the months of May and June, pupate, and adults emerge and begin depositing eggs some one or two weeks before the first picking of pears commences. Growers can tell very well when the first of the second-brood worms will begin

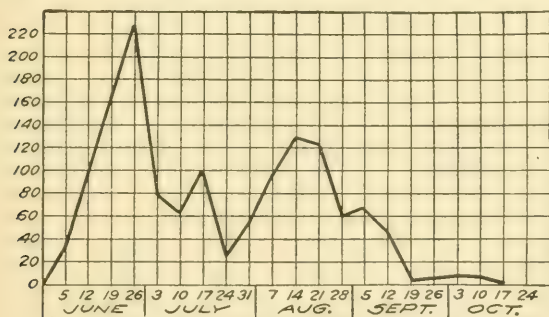


FIG. 8.—Codling-moth larvæ collected from banded apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

moths appear it will then be some two weeks before eggs are hatching.

BAND RECORDS.

Some idea of the development of the first-brood larvæ and the time of leaving fruit may be gained from Tables X and XI, which are the band records at Walnut Creek for 1909. (See also figs. 7 and 8, which show this data in diagrammatic form.)

to appear by the use of burlap bands put on the trees in May. Examine these once a week and when the first larvæ are caught under them they may be put into glass jars or tumblers with bits of paper or rags and kept under normal out-of-doors conditions. When the first

TABLE X.—*Band records from 21 Bartlett pear trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 5.....	24	July 17.....	22	Aug. 28.....	13	Oct. 9.....	0
12.....	71	24.....	31	Sept. 5.....	26		
19.....	45	31.....	15	12.....	11	Total..	592
26.....	85	Aug. 7.....	50	19.....	11		
July 3.....	49	14.....	55	26.....	3		
10.....	36	21.....	42	Oct. 2.....	3		

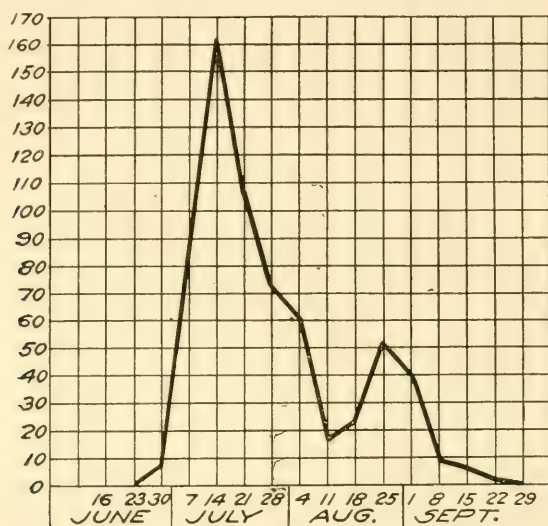


FIG. 9.—Weekly emergence of codling moths from material collected from banded apple and pear trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

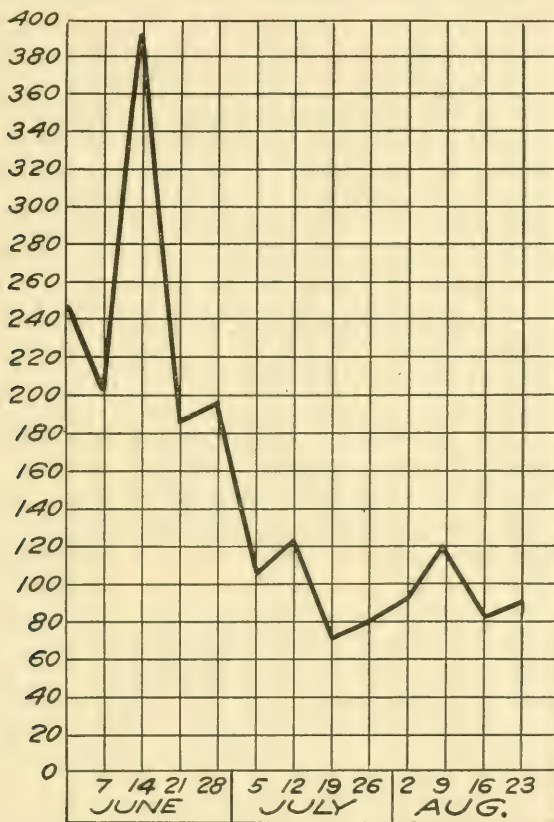
TABLE XI.—*Band records from 10 apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 5.....	32	July 17.....	99	Aug. 28.....	60	Oct. 10.....	5
12.....	98	24.....	25	Sept. 5.....	65		
19.....	164	31.....	56	12.....	43	Total..	1,371
26.....	223	Aug. 7.....	95	19.....	2		
July 3.....	79	14.....	128	26.....	3		
10.....	63	21.....	125	Oct. 3.....	6		

All larvæ and pupæ collected in making the two band records in 1909 were put together each week and kept in jars for the emergence of adults. The maximum emergence came July 8 to 14. The records are given in Table XII. (See also fig. 9.)

TABLE XII.—*Emergence of moths from material collected under bands on pear and apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1909.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.
June 23.....	3	July 21.....	114	Aug. 18.....	24	Sept. 15.....	6
30.....	7	28.....	73	25.....	52	22.....	1
July 7.....	91	Aug. 4.....	63	Sept. 1.....	40		
14.....	161	11.....	18	8.....	10	Total..	663

FIG. 10.—Band records from 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.
(Original.)TABLE XIII.—*Band records from 15 Bartlett pear trees, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 3.....	55	July 1.....	84	July 22.....	28	Aug. 12.....	38
10.....	58	8.....	37	29.....	50		
17.....	68	15.....	48	Aug. 5.....	68	Total..	618
24.....	84						

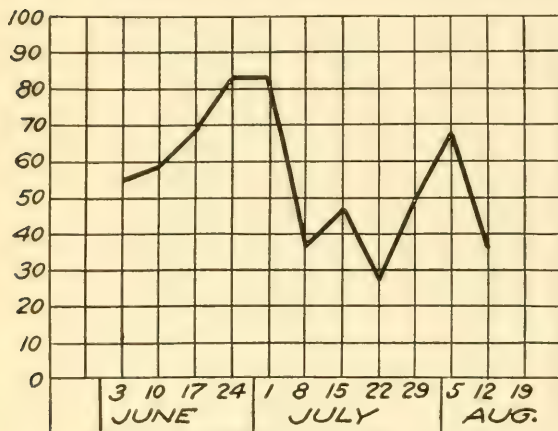
Table XIV, showing the band record from 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek in 1910, is illustrated diagrammatically in figure 10; and Table XIII, showing band records taken from 15 Bartlett pear trees at Suisun, Cal., in 1910, is illustrated in figure 11.

TABLE XIV.—*Band records from 11 apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 1.....	252	June 28.....	196	July 26.....	80	Aug. 23.....	88
7.....	200	July 5.....	105	Aug. 2.....	93		
14.....	394	12.....	125	9.....	120	Total..	1,991
21.....	185	19.....	71	16.....	82		

It will be seen (fig. 10) that the maximum number of larvæ and pupæ was collected on June 14, 1910, as against June 26, 1909 (figs. 7 and 8), showing that the greatest number of larvæ and pupæ was present nearly two weeks earlier in 1910 than in 1909.

Tables XV and XVI show emergence of moths from material collected under bands at Walnut Creek and Suisun in the summer of 1910.

FIG. 11.—*Band records from 15 Bartlett pear trees at Suisun, Cal., 1910.*
(Original.)

Both tables are illustrated diagrammatically in figures 12 and 13.

TABLE XV.—*Weekly record of emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 11 apple trees, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.
June 22.....	3	July 20.....	65	Aug. 10.....	36	Aug. 31.....	50
29.....	175	27.....	84	17.....	36	Sept. 7.....	15
July 6.....	133	Aug. 3.....	30	24.....	76	14.....	4
13.....	228						

TABLE XVI.—*Weekly record of emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 15 Bartlett pear trees, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths emerged.
June 19.....	1	July 10.....	74	July 31.....	7	Aug. 21.....	14
26.....	13	17.....	26	Aug. 7.....	9	28.....	2
July 3.....	25	24.....	18	14.....	6	Sept. 4.....	2

There is a noticeable difference in the dates of development of the first-brood larvæ and the emergence of moths from this brood in the

interior counties and in the coast counties. The tables giving the band records and emergence of moths for Walnut Creek and Suisun sections show the maximum emergence of moths to be about three weeks earlier than the maximum emergence at San Jose. Extended field observations covering the seasons of 1909-10 confirm these laboratory records. Many first-brood larvæ were hatching and entering fruit in early July in Santa Clara, Santa Cruz, and Monterey and in Mendocino and Humboldt Counties along the coast, while all this brood was in the fruit by the 1st of June in the adjoining interior counties.

Table XVII, giving the band record, and Table XVIII, giving the record of the emergence of moths, show the conditions for Santa Clara County. The band record was made in an unsprayed apple orchard. The data given in the respective tables are shown diagrammatically in figures 14 and 15.

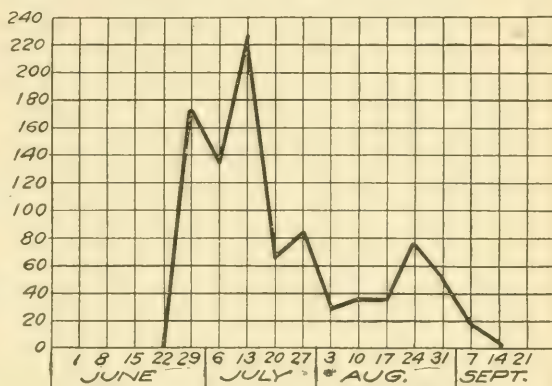


FIG. 12.—Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 11 apple trees at Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910. (Original.)

TABLE XVII.—Band records from apple trees, San Jose, Cal., 1909.

Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.	Date of collection.	Number of larvæ and pupæ collected.
June 21.....	1,602	Aug. 2.....	647	Sept. 13.....	634	Oct. 25.....	1
28.....	2,276	9.....	365	20.....	649	Nov. 1.....	8
July 5.....	946	16.....	227	27.....	271	8.....	3
12.....	1,565	23.....	645	Oct. 4.....	135		
19.....	1,804	30.....	880	11.....	92	Total..	14,759
26.....	1,041	Sept. 6.....	951	18.....	18		

TABLE XVIII.—Emergence of moths from banded apple trees, San Jose, Cal., 1909.

Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.	Date of emergence.	Number of moths.
July 12.....	55	Aug. 9.....	884	Sept. 6.....	40	Sept. 27.....	8
19.....	346	16.....	694	13.....	46		
26.....	731	23.....	441	20.....	133	Total..	4,320
Aug. 2.....	777	30.....	165				

NATURAL ENEMIES.

PARASITES.

At frequent intervals throughout the summer quantities of wormy

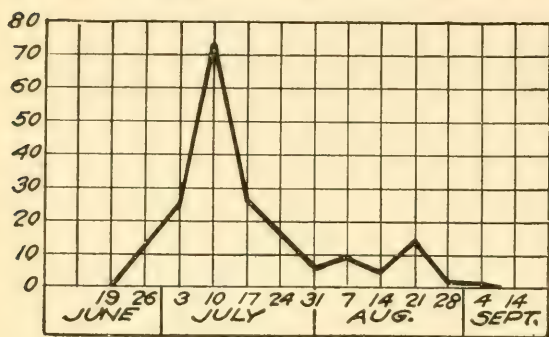


FIG. 13.—Weekly emergence of moths from material collected under bands on 15 pear trees, at Suisun Cal., 1910. (Original.)

fruit were brought into the laboratory from different orchards throughout Contra Costa County and kept in jars in shaded places out of doors, but not a single hymenopterous or dip-
terous parasite was reared from all the worms in this fruit. Neither was there any

reared from the material taken under bands on pear and apple trees.

PREDACEOUS ENEMIES.

Occasionally a carabid larva was found under the bands eating the larvæ, and late in the season a number of tenebrionid beetles, some of which were compared to beetles determined by Mr. E. A. Schwarz, of the Bureau of Entomology, as *Eulabis rufipes* Esch. and found to



FIG. 14.—Band records of the codling moth from apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

be the same, were found under bands with partly eaten larvæ, but in no case were these beetles found actually eating the larvæ.

THE CONTROL OF THE CODLING MOTH ON PEARS IN CALIFORNIA.

There are some necessary differences in the treatment of pear and apple orchards for the control of the codling moth. The calyx lobes

in normal pears do not close up so quickly as in the case of the apple. The blooming period of pears in California is usually very much longer, sometimes lasting from three to five weeks from the first to last appearing blossoms. There is also a "second crop" of fruit which is somewhat later than the other and longer stemmed. It is noticeable that the calyx lobes on this second-crop fruit close up tightly very quickly after the shedding of the petals. As a large percentage of the first-brood worms enters the fruit through the calyx, it is necessary to have poison in the calyx cups before they are closed. The first larvæ begin to hatch some three to five weeks after the blooming period is over. At least one and preferably two thorough sprayings should be given before this period of hatching of the larvæ.

Opportunity was offered during the season of 1909 to test the value of two and three treatments on pears and in 1910 a larger set of experiments, to determine the number of applications most efficient and the value of each as compared with no treatment at all, was carried out. The results of these and certain other observations are given in the following pages.

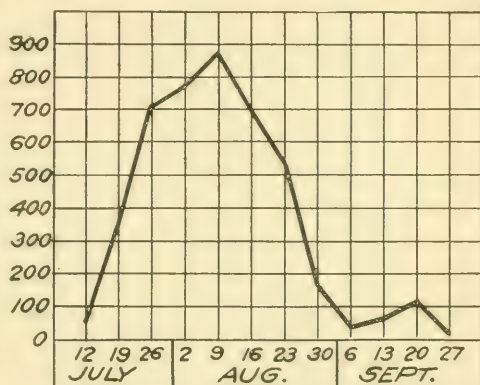


FIG. 15.—Weekly emergence of codling moths from larvæ collected from banded apple trees at San Jose, Cal., 1909. (Original.)

EFFECT OF SPRAYS ON PLACES OF ENTRANCE INTO PEARS BY LARVÆ.

Records were kept throughout both seasons for the entrance holes of all the larvæ in the fruit of 10 trees in each block used in the spraying experiments.

It is interesting to note the places of entrance in the fruit by the larvæ, the effect of the different applications on the comparative percentages of worms entering at the calyx and at the side and stem, and where the greater number of larvæ was killed. These data are given in Tables XIX to XXXIII, inclusive. (Tables XIX to XXI are the records from the 1909 experiments at Concord, Cal.; Tables XXII to XXIX, the records from the 1910 experiments at Walnut Creek, Cal.; and Tables XXX to XXXIII the records from the experiments at Suisun, Cal., in 1910.) Only the worms entering at the calyx cavity proper are recorded as calyx worms; all larvæ entering the fruit through side, base, and around the stem are recorded under the heading of side and stem.

TABLE XIX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat I, sprayed three times, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	23	8	15	39	15	24	62	23	39	37.10	62.90
2.....	5	2	3	34	8	26	39	10	29	25.64	74.36
3.....	8	5	3	24	7	17	32	12	20	37.50	62.50
4.....	14	6	8	43	6	37	57	12	45	21.05	78.95
5.....	4	1	3	20	6	14	24	7	17	29.16	70.84
6.....	19	7	12	21	9	12	40	16	24	40.00	60.00
7.....	11	3	8	22	8	14	33	11	22	33.33	66.67
8.....	8	2	6	17	11	6	25	13	12	52.00	48.00
9.....	19	6	13	19	6	13	38	12	26	31.57	68.43
10.....	15	5	10	14	3	11	29	8	21	27.58	72.42
Total, trees 1-10.....	126	45	81	253	79	174	379	124	255	32.72	67.28

TABLE XX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat II, unsprayed, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	311	231	80	833	635	198	1,144	866	278	75.69	24.31
2.....	327	244	83	551	418	133	878	662	216	75.40	24.60
3.....	248	200	48	425	318	107	673	518	155	76.96	23.00
4.....	213	172	41	350	238	112	563	410	153	72.82	27.14
5.....	262	200	62	459	335	124	721	535	186	74.20	25.88
6.....	230	180	50	560	402	158	790	582	208	73.67	26.30
7.....	201	172	29	596	444	152	797	616	181	77.29	22.73
8.....	242	194	48	395	258	137	637	452	185	70.95	29.01
9.....	242	163	79	460	292	168	702	455	247	64.81	35.15
10.....	295	236	59	408	287	121	703	523	180	74.39	25.69
Total, trees 1-10.....	2,571	1,992	579	5,037	3,627	1,410	7,608	5,619	1,989	73.86	26.14

TABLE XXI.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx and at side and stem. Plat III, sprayed twice, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	43	19	24	140	92	48	183	111	72	60.66	39.34
2.....	62	36	26	175	103	72	237	139	98	58.65	41.35
3.....	21	11	10	95	49	46	116	60	56	51.72	48.28
4.....	50	29	21	145	96	49	195	125	70	64.10	35.90
5.....	62	36	26	209	152	57	271	188	83	69.37	30.63
6.....	54	27	27	130	93	37	184	120	64	65.21	34.79
7.....	22	11	11	95	77	18	117	88	29	75.21	24.79
8.....	35	23	12	111	71	40	146	94	52	64.38	35.62
9.....	37	21	16	105	72	33	142	93	49	65.42	34.58
10.....	31	19	12	109	72	37	140	91	49	65.00	35.00
Total, trees 1-10.....	417	232	185	1,314	877	437	1,731	1,109	622	63.97	36.03

TABLE XXII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx and at side and stem. Plat I, sprayed three times, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	1	0	1	9	0	9	10	0	10	0.00	100.00
2.....	3	0	3	7	1	7	10	0	10	.00	100.00
3.....	1	0	1	5	1	4	6	1	5	16.67	83.33
4.....	2	0	2	4	0	4	6	0	6	.00	100.00
5.....	3	0	3	6	0	6	9	0	9	.00	100.00
6.....	2	0	2	7	0	7	9	0	9	.00	100.00
7.....	8	1	7	21	1	20	29	2	27	6.90	93.10
8.....	6	1	5	19	1	18	25	2	23	8.00	92.00
9.....	2	0	2	15	1	14	17	1	16	5.88	94.12
10.....	1	0	1	4	1	3	5	1	4	20.00	80.00
Total, trees 1-10.....	29	2	27	97	5	92	126	7	119	5.56	94.44

TABLE XXIII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering fruit at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat II, sprayed April 9 and May 2, being first and second spraying as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	2	2	0	32	2	30	34	4	30	11.76	88.24
2.....	2	1	1	56	2	54	58	3	55	5.17	94.83
3.....	2	1	1	21	0	21	23	1	22	4.35	95.65
4.....	2	0	2	37	0	37	39	0	39	.00	100.00
5.....	6	2	4	41	4	37	47	6	41	12.77	87.23
6.....	2	2	0	43	6	37	45	8	37	17.78	82.22
7.....	6	1	5	41	1	40	47	2	45	4.26	95.74
8.....	4	2	2	60	2	58	64	4	60	6.25	93.75
9.....	2	0	2	75	1	74	77	1	76	1.30	98.70
10.....	2	0	2	36	3	33	38	3	35	7.90	92.10
Total, trees 1-10.....	30	11	19	442	21	421	472	32	440	6.79	93.21

TABLE XXIV.—*Comparison of number of worms entering fruit at calyx and at side and stem. Plat III, sprayed April 9 and July 4, being first and third applications as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	14	5	9	45	14	31	59	19	40	32.21	67.79
2.....	11	3	8	38	6	32	49	9	40	18.37	81.63
3.....	10	1	9	23	3	20	33	4	29	12.12	87.88
4.....	9	4	5	24	1	23	33	5	28	15.15	84.85
5.....	17	7	10	66	11	55	83	18	65	21.69	78.31
6.....	9	4	5	20	3	17	29	7	22	24.14	75.86
7.....	19	9	10	53	11	42	72	20	52	27.78	72.22
8.....	9	3	6	15	4	11	24	7	17	29.18	70.82
9.....	11	4	7	16	3	13	27	7	20	25.93	74.07
10.....	22	15	7	75	28	47	97	43	54	44.33	55.67
Total, trees 1-10.....	131	55	76	375	84	291	506	139	367	27.47	72.53

TABLE XXV.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat IV, sprayed May 2 and July 4, being second and third applications as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	21	10	11	80	37	43	101	47	54	46.54	53.46
2.....	39	32	7	78	40	38	117	72	45	61.54	38.46
3.....	49	39	10	87	31	56	136	70	66	51.47	48.53
4.....	35	26	9	89	38	51	124	64	60	51.61	48.39
5.....	15	10	5	21	13	8	36	23	13	63.89	36.11
6.....	24	20	4	88	37	51	112	57	55	50.89	49.11
7.....	26	17	9	82	27	55	108	44	64	40.74	59.26
8.....	14	8	6	52	26	26	66	34	32	51.52	48.48
9.....	11	9	2	66	32	34	77	41	36	53.25	46.75
10.....	13	6	7	32	18	14	45	24	21	53.33	46.67
Total, trees 1-10.....	247	177	70	675	299	376	922	476	446	51.63	48.37

TABLE XXVI.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat V, sprayed July 4, being third application as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	78	74	4	89	68	21	167	142	25	85.03	14.97
2.....	132	120	12	112	83	29	244	203	41	83.20	16.80
3.....	80	74	6	59	44	15	139	118	21	84.89	15.11
4.....	84	76	8	56	48	8	140	124	16	88.57	11.43
5.....	116	104	12	116	102	14	232	206	26	88.79	11.21
6.....	108	96	12	94	84	10	202	180	22	89.11	10.89
7.....	218	197	21	198	162	36	416	359	57	86.30	13.70
8.....	82	75	7	83	73	10	165	148	17	89.69	10.31
9.....	83	74	9	89	71	18	172	145	27	84.30	15.70
10.....	41	37	4	58	41	17	99	78	21	78.79	21.21
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,022	927	95	954	776	178	1,976	1,703	273	86.18	13.82

TABLE XXVII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat VI, unsprayed check, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	192	181	11	153	146	7	345	327	18	94.78	5.22
2.....	119	106	13	91	77	14	210	183	27	87.14	12.86
3.....	181	165	16	134	131	3	315	296	19	93.97	6.03
4.....	139	123	16	119	112	7	258	235	23	91.08	8.92
5.....	95	86	9	84	78	6	179	164	15	91.60	8.40
6.....	119	106	13	52	47	5	171	153	18	89.48	10.52
7.....	58	54	4	95	79	16	153	133	20	86.93	13.07
8.....	105	89	16	97	91	6	202	180	22	89.10	10.90
9.....	119	104	15	134	130	4	253	234	19	92.50	7.50
10.....	118	105	13	75	70	5	193	175	18	90.67	9.33
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,245	1,119	126	1,034	961	73	2,279	2,080	199	91.27	8.73

TABLE XXVIII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat VII, sprayed April 9, being first application as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	15	7	8	26	8	18	41	15	26	36.59	63.41
2.....	6	2	4	32	8	24	38	10	28	26.33	73.67
3.....	10	5	5	88	15	73	98	20	78	20.41	79.59
4.....	21	9	12	54	8	46	75	17	58	22.67	77.33
5.....	7	2	5	52	10	42	59	12	47	20.34	79.66
6.....	9	4	5	116	15	101	125	19	106	15.20	84.80
7.....	27	8	19	75	49	26	102	57	45	55.88	44.12
8.....	20	11	9	42	7	35	62	18	44	29.19	70.81
9.....	6	1	5	45	9	36	51	10	41	19.61	80.39
10.....	5	3	2	37	11	26	42	14	28	33.33	66.67
Total, trees 1-10.....	126	52	74	567	140	427	693	192	501	27.71	72.29

TABLE XXIX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat VIII, sprayed May 2, being second application as given Plat I, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	1	1	-----	19	4	15	20	5	15	25.00	75.00
2.....	31	22	9	70	32	38	101	54	47	48.65	51.35
3.....	10	8	2	42	12	30	52	20	32	38.46	61.54
4.....	29	24	5	116	53	63	145	77	68	53.10	46.90
5.....	21	15	6	29	10	19	50	25	25	50.00	50.00
6.....	82	50	32	119	43	76	201	93	108	46.27	53.73
7.....	20	11	9	53	24	29	73	35	38	47.95	52.05
8.....	19	13	6	39	16	23	58	29	29	50.00	50.00
9.....	28	20	8	64	25	39	92	45	47	48.91	51.09
10.....	19	10	9	46	20	26	65	30	35	46.15	53.85
Total, trees 1-10.....	260	174	86	597	239	358	857	413	444	48.19	51.81

TABLE XXX.—*Comparison of number of worms entering fruit at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat I, sprayed three times, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	19	9	10	36	7	29	55	16	39	29.09	70.91
2.....	8	4	4	15	4	11	23	8	15	34.78	65.22
3.....	6	2	4	11	4	7	17	6	11	35.29	64.71
4.....	6	1	5	16	1	15	22	2	20	9.09	90.91
5.....	14	7	7	12	3	9	26	10	16	38.46	61.54
6.....	12	5	7	9	0	9	21	5	16	23.81	76.19
7.....	22	8	14	37	8	29	59	16	43	27.12	72.88
8.....	30	10	20	39	14	25	69	24	45	34.78	65.22
9.....	13	4	9	30	7	23	43	11	32	25.58	74.42
10.....	29	16	13	59	16	43	88	32	56	36.36	63.64
Total, trees 1-10.....	159	66	93	264	64	200	423	130	293	30.73	69.27

TABLE XXXI.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat II, sprayed May 5 and June 16, being second and third applications as given Plat I, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	57	40	17	56	34	22	113	74	39	65.49	34.51
2.....	95	66	29	123	82	41	218	148	70	67.89	67.89
3.....	72	55	17	130	84	46	202	139	63	68.81	31.19
4.....	51	42	9	52	31	21	103	73	30	70.87	29.13
5.....	77	60	17	107	75	32	184	135	49	73.37	26.63
6.....	149	114	35	149	92	57	298	206	92	69.13	69.87
7.....	74	47	27	76	50	26	150	97	53	64.67	35.33
8.....	114	83	31	140	101	39	254	184	70	72.44	27.56
9.....	34	27	7	67	37	30	101	64	37	63.37	36.63
10.....	103	78	25	139	62	77	242	140	102	57.85	42.15
Total, trees 1-10.....	826	612	214	1,039	648	391	1,865	1,260	605	67.56	32.44

TABLE XXXII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat III, sprayed April 7 and June 17, being first and third applications as given Plat I, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	25	16	9	56	13	43	81	29	52	35.80	64.20
2.....	17	8	9	36	13	23	53	21	32	39.63	60.37
3.....	44	27	17	45	18	27	89	45	44	50.50	49.50
4.....	13	7	6	26	8	18	39	15	24	38.46	61.54
5.....	18	9	9	34	7	27	52	16	36	30.77	69.23
6.....	43	19	24	67	26	41	110	45	65	40.91	59.09
7.....	59	36	23	127	52	75	186	88	98	47.31	52.69
8.....	44	19	25	91	41	50	135	60	75	44.44	55.56
9.....	41	24	17	52	15	37	93	39	54	41.94	58.06
10.....	20	12	8	41	17	24	61	29	32	47.54	52.46
Total, trees 1-10.....	324	177	147	575	210	365	899	387	512	43.05	56.95

TABLE XXXIII.—*Comparison of number of worms entering pears at calyx, and at side and stem. Plat IV, unsprayed check, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Worms in windfallen fruit.			Worms in fruit from trees.			Total number of—			Percentage of—	
	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Number of worms.	Entered at calyx.	Entered at side and stem.	Worms.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.	Worms entered at calyx.	Worms entered at side and stem.
1.....	370	350	20	158	143	15	528	493	35	93.37	6.63
2.....	199	188	11	118	112	6	317	300	17	94.64	5.36
3.....	420	398	22	136	123	13	556	521	35	93.70	6.30
4.....	171	160	11	227	213	14	398	373	25	93.72	6.28
5.....	386	359	27	326	301	25	712	660	52	92.69	7.31
6.....	248	227	21	228	219	9	476	446	30	93.70	6.30
7.....	496	476	20	195	182	13	691	658	33	95.22	4.78
8.....	193	179	14	107	100	7	300	279	21	93.00	7.00
9.....	533	503	30	255	234	21	788	737	51	93.52	6.48
10.....	481	464	17	404	367	37	885	831	54	93.90	6.10
Total, trees 1-10.....	3,497	3,304	193	2,154	1,994	160	5,651	5,296	355	93.72	6.28

To show more fully the results of the different sprayings as influencing the places of entrance of the worms and showing where they are mostly killed Tables XXXIV, XXXV, and XXXVI have been prepared, which are in part summaries of the foregoing tables and of those which are to follow under the heading of "Commercial results from spraying."

In Table XXXIV, in the unsprayed portion, Plat VI, 85.702 per cent of the pears were wormy at the calyx, and 8.198 per cent were wormy at the side and stem, while in the demonstration block, Plat I, which received three sprayings only, 0.223 per cent of the pears were wormy at the calyx and 3.803 per cent at the side and stem. This indicates that the sprayings reduced the infestation at the calyx from 85.702 per cent to 0.223 per cent, a reduction to approximately one three-hundred-and-eighty-fourth of the original infestation. That is, the check plat showed 384 times more pears wormy at the calyx than was the case with Plat I. The infestation at the side and stem was reduced from 8.198 per cent on the check plat to 3.803 per cent for Plat I, a reduction of only a little over one-half of the original infestation. While the infestation at the calyx was reduced 384 times, the infestation at the side and stem was reduced only 2.4 times.

Plat II, which received the two early sprayings for the first-brood worms, but no late spraying corresponding to the third treatment on Plat I, had 0.747 per cent of the pears wormy at the calyx, indicating a reduction to about one one-hundred-and-fourteenth of the original infestation, while the infestation at the side and stem was not reduced but apparently slightly increased, as this plat showed 9.943 per cent of the fruit wormy at the side and stem as against 8.198 per cent wormy at the side and stem in the unsprayed check plat.

This phenomenon might be thought to indicate that there was some repellent action by the arsenate of lead in the calyx cavity to cause the worms to seek the uncoated surface of the pear. However, this is probably explained by the fact that on the unsprayed block such a large portion of the pears were injured by the first-brood worms and fell off the trees before the appearance of the second-brood worms, that, although the same proportion of worms of this second brood entered the side of the fruit in the check block as in the block receiving the two early sprayings, there were not enough pears left on the trees in the check block to bring the average of the total crop of pears, wormy at the side, up to that of Plat II, where a much larger portion of the year's crop had been kept on the trees by the early sprayings. This same condition holds true for the unsprayed check, Plat IV, in Table XXXV, recording experiments at Suisun in 1910. More than 60 per cent of the total crop of fruit from the check plat dropped from the trees, due almost entirely to the work of the first-brood worms. On the sprayed blocks only 13 to 22 per cent of the total crop of fruit dropped from the trees.

In Plat II of Table XXXVI, recording the 1909 experiments at Concord, worms were not so prevalent, the fruit on the unsprayed plat being only 53.05 per cent wormy and only about 31 per cent of the fruit dropping from the trees. (See Table XXXVIII.) This plat shows a much higher percentage (13.869 per cent) of the pears wormy at the side and stem. Also, if we examine Plat V of Table XXXIV, recording the 1910 experiments at Walnut Creek, we find a higher percentage of pears wormy at the side and stem, namely, 11.699 per cent as against 8.198 per cent in the check block. Plat V received no treatment for the first-brood worms, but was sprayed once on July 4 just before the second-brood worms began to enter the fruit. The surface of the fruit was fairly well covered, yet the percentage of fruit wormy at the side and stem was greater than was that of the unsprayed block. In this case it will be seen (Tables XLIV and XLV) that there was more fruit on the trees at picking time in Plat V than on the trees of the check plat. Also there were correspondingly more windfalls from the trees in the check plat than from the trees in Plat V.

All of the plats receiving the first spraying (soon after falling of petals) show a comparatively light infestation at the calyx, and those receiving the two early sprayings have very few pears wormy at the calyx. (See Plats I, II, III, and VII, Table XXXIV.) Those plats on which this first spraying was omitted have a greater percentage of pears wormy at calyx, although they received one thorough spraying just before the first-brood worms began to enter the fruit, which was some four weeks after the petals had fallen. (See Plats IV and VIII, Table XXXIV.)

TABLE XXXIV.—*Degree of infestation and relative infestation at different places of entrance by codling-moth larvæ. Plats I to VIII, inclusive, Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Plat.	Total number of pears.	Total number of wormy pears.	Degree of infestation.			Relative infestation at different places of entrance.		
			Total per cent of wormy pears.	Total per cent of pears wormy at calyx.	Total per cent of pears wormy at side and stem.	Total number of worms (100 per cent).	Percentage of worms entering at calyx.	Percentage of worms entering at side and stem.
Plat I, sprayed Apr. 9, May 2, July 14...	3, 126	126	4.03	0.223	3.803	126	5.56	94.44
Plat II, sprayed Apr. 9 and May 2.....	4, 415	472	10.69	.747	9.943	472	6.79	93.21
Plat III, sprayed Apr. 9 and July 4...	2, 477	506	20.43	5.611	14.816	506	27.47	72.53
Plat IV, sprayed May 2 and July 4.....	4, 096	922	22.51	11.621	10.888	922	51.63	48.37
Plat V, sprayed July 4.....	2, 248	1, 976	87.90	76.201	11.699	1, 976	86.18	13.82
Plat VI, unsprayed check.....	2, 427	2, 279	93.90	85.702	8.198	2, 279	91.27	8.73
Plat VII, sprayed Apr. 9.....	2, 128	693	32.57	9.020	23.550	693	27.71	72.29
Plat VIII, sprayed May 2.....	2, 811	857	30.49	14.695	15.795	857	48.19	51.81

TABLE XXXV.—*Degree of infestation and relative infestation at different places of entrance by codling-moth larvæ. Plats I-IV, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Plat.	Total number of pears.	Total number of wormy pears.	Degree of infestation.			Relative infestation at different places of entrance.		
			Total per cent of wormy pears.	Total per cent of pears wormy at calyx.	Total per cent of pears wormy at side and stem.	Total number of worms (100 per cent).	Percentage of worms entering at calyx.	Percentage of worms entering at side and stem.
Plat I, sprayed Apr. 6, May 4, and June 16.....	7,290	423	5.80	1.783	4.019	423	30.73	69.27
Plat II, sprayed May 5 and June 16.....	6,538	1,865	28.52	19.270	9.250	1,865	67.56	32.44
Plat III, sprayed Apr. 7 and June 17.....	6,381	899	14.09	6.065	8.024	899	43.05	56.95
Plat IV, unsprayed check.....	5,941	5,651	95.12	89.143	5.975	5,651	93.72	6.28

TABLE XXXVI.—*Degree of infestation and relative infestation at different places of entrance by codling-moth larvæ. Plats I to III, inclusive, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Plat.	Total number of pears.	Total number of wormy pears.	Degree of infestation.			Relative infestation at different places of entrance.		
			Per cent of wormy pears.	Per cent of pears wormy at calyx.	Per cent of pears wormy at side and stem.	Total number of worms (100 per cent).	Percentage of worms entering at calyx.	Percentage of worms entering at side and stem.
Plat I, sprayed Apr. 17, May 10, and June 29.....	13,219	379	2.86	0.938	1.929	379	32.72	67.28
Plat II, unsprayed check.....	14,290	7,581	53.05	39.181	13.869	7,581	73.86	26.14
Plat III, sprayed Apr. 18 and June 29.....	13,943	1,731	12.415	7.954	4.461	1,731	63.97	36.03

For the best results in obtaining fruit free from worms, it is desirable to spray three times, but if only two applications can be put on, the two early treatments give far better results than any other two sprayings.

COMMERCIAL RESULTS FROM SPRAYING.

CONTRA COSTA COUNTY, 1909.

The 15-acre Bartlett pear orchard belonging to Mr. George Whitman and located in the central part of Ygnacio Valley, Contra Costa County (see Plate III), was used for this work in 1909. The trees are large and well cared for, comparing favorably with the average California pear orchard.

The larger part of the orchard was included in Plat I as a demonstration. Four rows across the middle of the orchard were left unsprayed for comparison. Plat III consisted of six rows across the north end of the orchard.

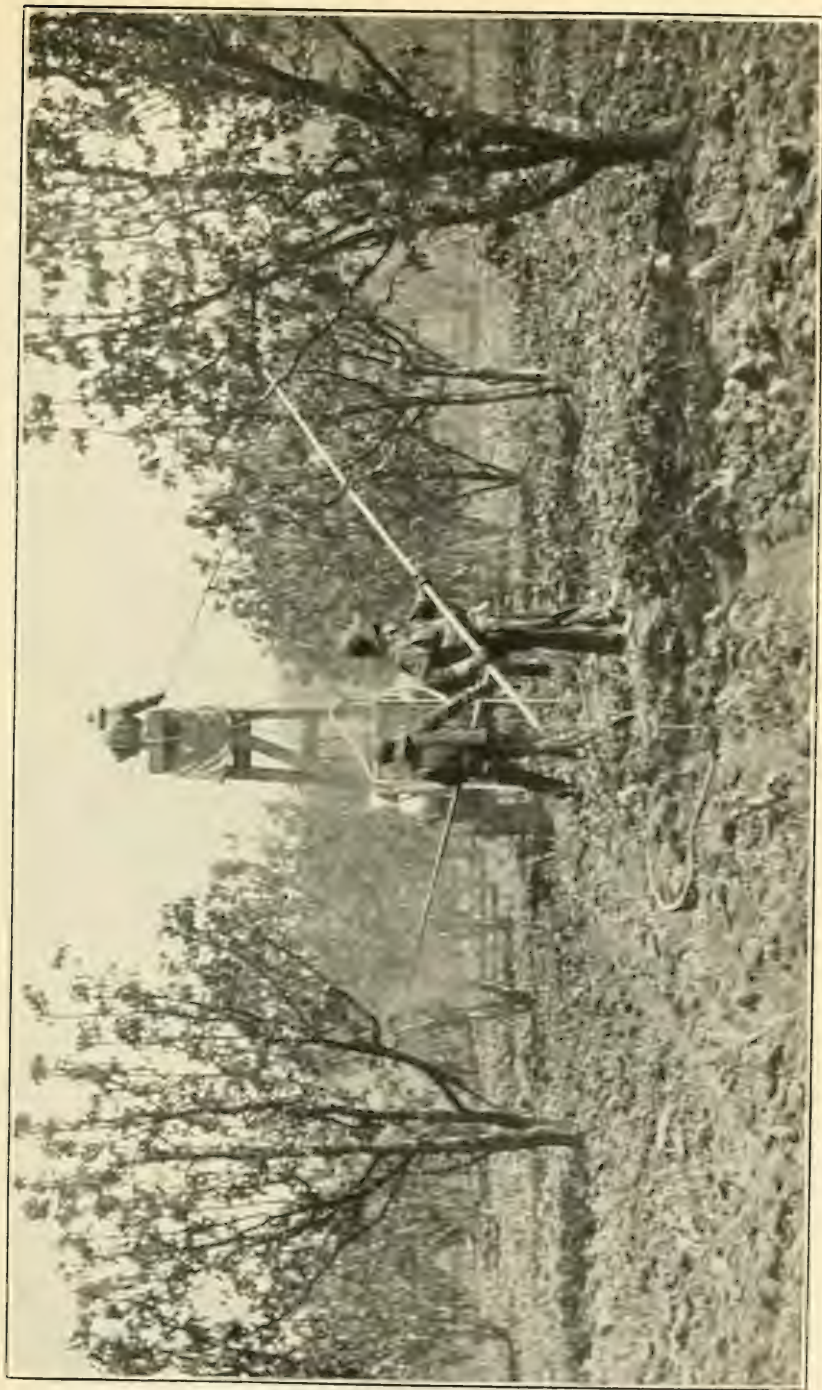
The first spraying for Plats I and III was just after most of the petals had fallen from the trees, April 17 to 21. Calyx cups on some of the second-crop fruit were closing at this time. For this spraying the nozzles were held close to the fruit clusters in order to fill the calyx cavities as much as possible. Many counts showed from 80 to 85 per cent of all cups to have been filled. The second spraying on Plat I came about three weeks later, May 10 to 12, after the first moths were out and depositing eggs. This spraying was omitted on Plat III. The last spraying was for the second-brood worms and was applied June 28 to 30 on Plats I and III, just after the second-brood moths began to emerge in numbers.

A gasoline power outfit was used for all sprayings. One man was stationed on a tower platform 8 feet above the tank to spray the tops of the trees while two men sprayed from the ground, supplied with bamboo rods 10 and 12 feet long with large nozzles with wide chambers throwing a mist which spread quickly after leaving the nozzle. A uniform pressure of 150 to 175 pounds was maintained, and arsenate of lead at the rate of 2 pounds to 50 gallons of water was used, requiring an average of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 gallons of spray per tree for each application.

The total expense of spraying, including the arsenate of lead at $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, four men to run the machine and do the spraying at \$1.50 per day for each man, and two horses at \$1 each per day, and gasoline and lubricating oil, etc., amounted to $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents per tree for three applications and $4\frac{1}{3}$ cents per tree for two applications. The records in Tables XXXVII, XXXVIII, and XXXIX give the comparison of the sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in each plat for the season. The windfalls were gathered and graded once each week.

TABLE XXXVII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 pear trees of Plat I, sprayed three times, in orchard of Mr. George Whitman, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent sound.
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	
1.....	440	23	417	1,294	39	1,255	1,734	62	1,672	96.42
2.....	95	5	90	1,078	34	1,044	1,173	39	1,134	96.68
3.....	73	8	65	775	24	751	848	32	816	96.23
4.....	171	14	157	1,548	43	1,505	1,719	57	1,662	96.68
5.....	90	4	86	1,025	20	1,005	1,115	24	1,091	97.85
6.....	368	19	349	846	21	825	1,214	40	1,174	96.71
7.....	153	11	142	1,164	22	1,142	1,317	33	1,284	97.50
8.....	122	8	114	794	17	777	916	25	891	97.28
9.....	658	19	639	1,298	19	1,279	1,956	38	1,918	98.06
10.....	246	15	231	981	14	967	1,227	29	1,198	97.64
Total, trees 1-10.....	2,416	126	2,290	10,803	253	10,550	13,219	379	12,840	97.12



GENERAL VIEW OF THE WHITMAN PEAR ORCHARD, WITH POWER SPRAYING OUTFIT IN OPERATION IN SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST CODLING MOTH, CONCORD, CAL., 1909. (ORIGINAL.)

TABLE XXXVIII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 pear trees from unsprayed check plat in pear orchard of Mr. George Whitman, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent sound.
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	
1.....	610	311	299	1,358	833	525	1,968	1,144	824	41.87
2.....	619	307	312	982	551	431	1,601	858	743	46.41
3.....	456	248	208	929	425	504	1,385	673	712	51.40
4.....	444	213	231	764	350	414	1,208	563	645	53.39
5.....	430	262	168	949	459	490	1,379	721	658	47.72
6.....	390	230	160	1,315	560	755	1,705	790	915	53.67
7.....	356	201	155	1,164	596	568	1,520	797	723	47.57
8.....	351	242	109	678	395	283	1,029	637	392	38.08
9.....	407	242	165	885	460	425	1,292	702	590	45.67
10.....	416	288	128	787	408	379	1,203	696	507	42.14
Total, trees 1-10.....	4,479	2,544	1,935	9,811	5,037	4,774	14,290	7,581	6,709	46.95

TABLE XXXIX.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 pear trees in Plat III, sprayed twice, in orchard of Mr. George Whitman, Concord, Cal., 1909.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent sound.
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	
1.....	420	43	377	897	140	757	1,317	183	1,134	86.10
2.....	336	62	274	1,055	175	880	1,391	237	1,154	82.96
3.....	203	21	182	1,120	95	1,025	1,323	116	1,207	91.24
4.....	418	50	368	867	145	722	1,285	195	1,090	84.82
5.....	549	62	487	889	209	680	1,438	271	1,167	81.16
6.....	431	54	377	875	130	745	1,306	184	1,122	85.91
7.....	281	22	259	653	95	558	934	117	817	87.47
8.....	374	35	339	1,150	111	1,039	1,524	146	1,378	80.58
9.....	467	37	430	1,171	105	1,066	1,638	142	1,496	91.33
10.....	669	31	638	1,118	103	1,009	1,787	140	1,647	92.17
Total, trees 1-10.....	4,148	417	3,731	9,795	1,314	8,481	13,943	1,731	12,212	87.59

The fruit from the unsprayed plat was 53.05 per cent wormy. That of Plat III, sprayed twice, was 12.41 per cent wormy, showing a gain of 40.64 per cent for two sprayings, and Plat I had 2.87 per cent wormy pears with 97.12 per cent sound, realizing an increase of 50.18 per cent sound fruit over the unsprayed trees.

PROFITS.

The 10 trees in the unsprayed block, Plat II, Table XXXVIII, gave a yield of 4,774 sound pears. Allowing 150 pears per box this would give 31.82 boxes of shipping fruit. The net price this year for pears shipped east was about 80 cents per box. Taking this as the price for all the sound pears shows a total of \$25.45 returns from the 10 trees not sprayed. Counting all windfalls after July 3 and all the wormy fruit picked from the tree as fit for drying there were 7,939 such pears, or approximately 2,540 pounds, which would make 362

pounds of dried fruit.^a Allowing 7 cents per pound for this, minus $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents for the cost of drying, gives \$19.95, the possible returns for the fruit not shipped. This, with the amount received for the fruit shipped, gives a total of \$45.50 returns for the 10 trees, or \$4.55 per tree.

Plat III, Table XXXIX, produced 8,481 sound pears, or 63.20 boxes, which at 80 cents per box gives a gross return of \$50.56 for the fruit shipped. There were 4,159 wormy pears and windfalls for the dry ground, or 1,321 pounds of green fruit, giving 188.70 pounds of dried fruit, which, at the same price as the other, makes \$10.37. This, added to the \$50.56 for the fruit shipped east, gives \$60.93 for the gross returns from the ten trees, or \$6.09 per tree. Deducting from this $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents for the cost of spraying, leaves a net return of \$6.04 per tree, or a net increase of \$1.49 per tree for the two sprayings over the check block.

Plat I, Table XXXVII, sprayed three times, gave 10,550 sound pears picked from the 10 trees, or 70.33 boxes. At 80 cents per box this gives \$56.26 returns for the fruit shipped. There were 1,941 windfalls and wormy pears from the trees, or 621 pounds of green fruit, making 88.70 pounds of dried fruit, which at 7 cents per pound (minus $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents, the cost of drying) leaves \$4.88 for the dried fruit. Adding this to the returns for the shipped fruit gives \$61.14 gross returns for the 10 trees, or \$6.114 per tree. Deducting from this $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents, the cost of spraying three times, leaves a net return of \$6.04 per tree, a net increase of \$1.49 per tree or \$156.45 per acre over the unsprayed trees.

These figures show no gain in Plat I over Plat III for the extra spraying, which came May 10 to 11, but by referring to Tables XXXVII and XXXIX it will be seen that there was an increase of 9.42 per cent of sound fruit for this spraying. Also the total number of pears from the 10 trees in Plat III was greater by 724, or there were 5.17 per cent more pears than from the 10 trees in Plat I. The difference was even greater between the check block and the demonstration. The check block, Plat II, having 1,071, or 7.42 per cent, more pears than the 10 trees in Plat III.

CONTRA COSTA COUNTY, 1910.

An orchard consisting of about 750 Bartlett pear trees belonging to the Mrs. Fanny W. Baneroft Orchard Co. and located some 3 miles from Walnut Creek was used for the experiments in 1910. The orchard was laid off into eight plats of from 75 to 100 trees each and sprayed as follows:

^a All figures for these ratios are based on 150 pears to a box of 48 pounds and a ratio of 7 tons of fruit as it is picked up in the field producing 1 ton of dried fruit.

Plat No.	First spraying, Apr. 9.	Second spraying, May 2.	Third spraying, July 4.
I	XX.....	XX.....	XX (demonstration).
II	XX.....	XX.....	Omit.
III	XX.....	Omit.....	XX.
IV	Omit.....	XX.....	XX.
V	Omit.....	Omit.....	XX.
VI	Omit.....	Omit.....	Omit (check).
VII	XX.....	Omit.....	Omit.
VIII	Omit.....	XX.....	Omit.

XX = Sprayed.
Omit = Unsprayed.

The codling moth had been very abundant in this orchard for several years, frequently occurring in such numbers that 90 per cent or more of the fruit was infested. The unsprayed plat this year had 93.90 per cent wormy fruit. The same outfit was used this year as was used in the Whitman orchard in 1909 and the same materials, namely, arsenate of lead, except that half of each plat was sprayed with arsenate of lead at the rate of 6 pounds to each 100 gallons of water and the other half with arsenate of lead at the rate of 4 pounds to each 100 gallons of water at each application. Five of the ten trees selected for records were taken from each half of the blocks and the records kept separately throughout the season. No consistent differences could be found and it is quite evident that 4 pounds of arsenate of lead is as efficient as 6 pounds for each 100 gallons of water. All spraying was done thoroughly and, so far as possible, all the calyx cups on those plats receiving the first application were well filled with spray. The results showing the sound and wormy fruit from the eight plats are given in Tables XL to XLVII. The windfalls were gathered and examined once each week.

TABLE XL.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat I, sprayed three times, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., near Walnut Creek, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	28	1	27	411	9	402	439	10	429	2.28	97.72
2.....	8	3	5	143	7	136	151	10	141	6.62	93.38
3.....	28	1	27	364	5	359	392	6	386	1.53	98.47
4.....	19	2	17	218	4	214	237	6	231	2.53	97.47
5.....	15	3	12	138	6	132	153	9	144	5.88	94.12
6.....	18	2	16	232	7	225	250	9	241	3.60	96.40
7.....	34	8	26	459	21	438	493	29	464	5.88	94.12
8.....	69	6	63	301	19	282	370	25	345	6.76	93.24
9.....	30	2	28	381	15	366	411	17	394	4.14	95.86
10.....	12	1	11	218	4	214	230	5	225	2.17	97.83
Total, trees 1-10.....	261	29	232	2,865	97	2,768	3,126	126	3,000	4.03	95.97

TABLE XLI.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat II, sprayed Apr. 9 and May 2, being only first two applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	13	2	11	429	32	397	442	34	408	7.69	92.31
2.....	17	2	15	425	56	369	442	58	384	13.12	86.88
3.....	19	2	17	323	21	302	342	23	319	6.73	93.27
4.....	12	2	10	395	37	358	407	39	368	9.58	90.42
5.....	32	6	26	316	41	275	348	47	301	13.51	86.49
6.....	18	2	16	363	43	320	381	45	336	11.81	88.19
7.....	29	6	23	509	41	468	538	47	491	8.74	91.26
8.....	31	4	27	492	60	432	523	64	459	12.24	87.76
9.....	20	2	18	458	75	383	478	77	401	16.11	83.89
10.....	21	2	19	493	36	457	514	38	476	7.39	92.61
Total, trees 1-10.....	212	30	182	4,203	442	3,761	4,415	472	3,943	10.69	89.31

TABLE XLII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat III, sprayed Apr. 9 and July 4, being first and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	78	14	64	231	45	186	309	59	250	19.09	80.91
2.....	19	11	8	212	38	174	231	49	182	21.21	78.79
3.....	27	10	17	132	23	109	159	33	126	20.75	79.25
4.....	24	9	15	134	24	110	158	33	125	20.85	79.11
5.....	45	17	28	289	66	223	334	83	251	24.85	75.15
6.....	25	9	16	131	20	111	156	29	127	18.59	81.41
7.....	55	19	36	438	53	385	493	72	421	14.60	85.40
8.....	18	9	9	105	15	90	123	24	99	19.51	80.49
9.....	26	11	15	119	16	103	145	27	118	18.62	81.38
10.....	40	22	18	329	75	254	369	97	272	26.29	73.71
Total, trees 1-10.....	357	131	226	2,120	375	1,745	2,477	506	1,971	20.43	79.57

TABLE XLIII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat IV, sprayed May 2 and July 4, being second and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	88	21	67	411	80	331	499	101	398	21.44	79.56
2.....	81	39	42	472	78	394	553	117	436	21.16	78.84
3.....	76	49	27	388	87	301	464	136	328	29.31	70.69
4.....	53	35	18	507	89	418	560	124	436	22.14	77.86
5.....	22	15	7	114	21	93	136	36	100	26.47	73.53
6.....	43	24	19	547	88	459	590	112	478	18.98	81.02
7.....	53	26	27	519	82	437	572	108	464	18.88	81.12
8.....	20	14	6	220	52	168	240	66	174	27.50	72.50
9.....	16	11	5	286	66	220	302	77	225	25.50	74.50
10.....	21	13	8	159	32	127	180	45	135	25.00	75.00
Total, trees 1-10.....	473	247	226	3,623	675	2,948	4,096	922	3,174	22.51	77.49

TABLE XLIV.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat V, sprayed July 4, being third application as given Plat I (treatments for first-brood worms omitted), pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	87	78	9	109	89	20	196	167	29	85.20	14.80
2.....	139	132	7	134	112	22	273	244	29	89.38	10.62
3.....	85	80	5	79	59	20	164	139	25	84.76	15.24
4.....	91	84	7	66	56	10	157	140	17	89.17	10.83
5.....	128	116	12	132	116	16	260	232	28	89.23	10.77
6.....	112	108	4	102	94	8	214	202	12	94.40	5.60
7.....	229	218	11	263	198	65	492	416	76	84.55	15.45
8.....	83	82	1	97	83	14	180	165	15	91.67	8.33
9.....	90	83	7	104	89	15	194	172	22	88.66	11.34
10.....	46	41	5	72	58	14	118	99	19	83.89	16.11
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,090	1,022	68	1,158	954	204	2,248	1,976	272	87.90	12.10

TABLE XLV.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees in Plat VI, unsprayed check, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	208	192	16	158	153	5	366	345	21	94.26	5.74
2.....	122	119	3	95	91	4	217	210	7	96.77	3.23
3.....	194	181	13	136	134	2	330	315	15	95.45	4.55
4.....	148	139	9	126	119	7	274	258	16	94.16	5.84
5.....	100	95	5	84	84	0	184	179	5	97.82	2.18
6.....	148	119	29	54	52	2	202	171	31	84.65	15.35
7.....	63	58	5	103	95	8	166	153	13	92.17	7.83
8.....	114	105	9	103	97	6	217	202	15	93.09	6.91
9.....	127	119	8	139	134	5	266	253	13	95.11	4.89
10.....	127	118	9	78	75	3	205	193	12	94.14	5.86
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,351	1,245	106	1,076	1,034	42	2,427	2,279	148	93.90	6.10

TABLE XLVI.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat VII, sprayed Apr. 9, being first application as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	22	15	7	75	26	49	97	41	56	42.27	57.73
2.....	14	6	8	97	32	65	111	38	73	34.23	65.77
3.....	19	10	9	200	88	112	219	98	121	44.75	55.25
4.....	45	21	24	191	54	137	236	75	161	31.78	68.22
5.....	19	7	12	182	52	130	201	59	142	29.35	70.65
6.....	21	9	12	328	116	212	349	125	224	35.82	64.18
7.....	88	27	61	364	75	289	452	102	350	22.57	77.43
8.....	34	20	14	166	42	124	200	62	138	31.00	69.00
9.....	12	6	6	121	45	76	133	51	82	38.35	61.65
10.....	18	5	13	112	37	75	130	42	88	32.31	67.69
Total, trees 1-10.....	292	126	166	1,836	567	1,269	2,128	693	1,435	32.57	67.43

TABLE XLVII. —*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat VIII, sprayed May 2, being second application as given Plat I, pear orchard of the Mrs. Fanny W. Bancroft Orchard Co., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	6	1	5	61	19	42	67	20	47	29.84	70.16
2.....	53	31	22	149	70	79	202	101	101	50.60	50.00
3.....	33	10	23	203	42	161	236	52	184	22.03	77.97
4.....	44	29	15	324	116	208	368	145	223	39.40	60.60
5.....	54	21	33	100	29	71	154	50	104	32.47	67.53
6.....	140	82	58	624	119	505	764	201	563	26.31	73.69
7.....	33	20	13	168	53	115	201	73	128	36.32	63.68
8.....	36	19	17	158	39	119	194	58	136	29.90	70.10
9.....	70	28	42	302	64	238	372	92	280	24.73	75.27
10.....	45	19	26	208	46	162	253	65	188	25.69	74.31
Total, trees 1-10.....	514	260	254	2,297	597	1,700	2,811	857	1,954	30.49	69.51

The fruit from the unsprayed block Plat VI (Table XLV) was 93.90 per cent wormy, while that from the demonstration block, Plat I (Table XL), sprayed three times, was only 4.03 per cent wormy, showing a gain of 89.87 per cent sound fruit for the three sprayings. Plat II (Table XLI), sprayed twice, both times for the first-brood worms, showed 10.69 per cent wormy, representing a gain in sound fruit of 83.21 per cent for two sprayings put on in time to catch the first-brood worms. Plat III (Table XLII), which was also sprayed twice, these being the first and last applications as given Plat I, the accessory treatment for the first brood being omitted, showed 20.43 per cent wormy fruit, showing a gain of 73.47 per cent sound fruit for the two sprayings. This gain, however, is 10.74 per cent less than was the case where both sprayings were put on in time for the first-brood worms. Plat IV (Table XLIII) received the second and third applications as given Plat I, the first spraying being omitted. The results showed 22.51 per cent of the fruit to be wormy, which is a gain of 70.39 per cent over the check plat, but is 11.82 per cent less than the gain on Plat II, where the two applications were put on early. The other plats, which received only one application, ran too high in wormy fruit to be considered at all from a commercial viewpoint. Thus, Plat VII (Table XLVI), which received only the first application, showed 32.57 per cent wormy and 67.43 per cent sound, while Plat VIII (Table XLVII), which received only the second application, had 30.49 per cent wormy and 69.51 per cent sound. Plat V (Table XLIV), which received only the last application, was little better than the check, having 87.90 per cent of the fruit wormy and only 12.10 per cent sound.

PROFITS.

From the 10 trees of Plat I, 2,768 pears free from worms, or 18.45 boxes, were picked, which at the average net price of 80 cents per box gives \$14.76, or \$1.47 per tree, which represents about \$147.60 per acre. To this should be added \$5.60 which represents the value per acre of the windfalls and wormy fruit from the trees of Plat I, giving a total of \$153.20.

The 10 trees in Plat VI, the unsprayed check, yielded only 42 pears, or 0.28 box free from worms at picking time. This at 80 cents per box gives 22 cents for the 10 trees, or approximately \$2.20 per acre. There were, after July 15, 1,032 windfalls and wormy pears picked from the trees, which represent a cash value of \$4.52 for the 10 trees, or \$45.20 per acre, giving a total return of \$47.40 per acre for the fruit from the unsprayed portion. Subtracting this from the value of the crop per acre of Plat I gives a difference of about \$100 in favor of spraying. Subtracting from this \$6.50, the cost of spraying per acre, gives \$93.50 net gain per acre due to spraying.

EXPERIMENTS IN SOLANO COUNTY, 1910.

A large pear orchard belonging to Mr. G. W. Langdon and located near the upper end of Suisun Valley at Suisun, Cal., consists of very old and large trees, and in recent years a very small portion of the fruit has been merchantable in the green state, due to the high infestation by the codling moth. The larger part of the orchard was sprayed three times. Three other blocks of about 70 trees each were used to test the relative value of the first and third applications and the second and third applications with the plat receiving the three applications and one of the plats was left unsprayed for check and comparison. The results showing sound and wormy fruit from each plat are given in Tables XLVIII to LI.

TABLE XLVIII.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat I, sprayed three times, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	143	19	124	962	36	926	1,105	55	1,050	4.98	95.02
2.....	97	8	89	599	15	584	696	23	673	3.30	96.70
3.....	77	6	71	685	11	674	762	17	745	2.23	97.77
4.....	37	6	31	422	16	406	459	22	437	4.79	95.21
5.....	110	14	96	666	12	654	776	26	750	3.35	96.65
6.....	101	12	89	553	9	544	654	21	633	3.21	96.79
7.....	184	22	162	1,094	37	1,057	1,278	59	1,219	4.62	95.38
8.....	103	30	73	425	39	386	528	69	459	13.07	86.93
9.....	59	13	46	221	30	191	280	43	237	15.36	84.64
10.....	100	29	71	652	59	593	752	88	664	11.70	88.30
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,011	159	852	6,279	264	6,015	7,290	423	6,867	5.80	94.20

TABLE XLIX.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat II, sprayed May 5 and June 16, being second and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	84	57	27	355	56	299	439	113	326	25.74	74.26
2.....	154	95	59	508	123	385	662	218	444	32.93	67.07
3.....	128	72	56	665	130	535	793	202	591	25.47	74.53
4.....	87	51	36	264	52	212	351	103	248	29.34	70.66
5.....	117	77	40	482	107	375	599	184	415	30.72	69.28
6.....	283	149	134	632	149	483	915	298	617	32.57	67.43
7.....	123	74	49	428	76	352	551	150	401	27.22	72.78
8.....	205	114	91	648	140	508	853	254	599	29.78	70.22
9.....	51	34	17	248	67	181	299	101	198	33.80	66.20
10.....	208	103	105	868	139	729	1,076	242	834	22.49	77.51
Total, trees 1-10.....	1,440	826	614	5,098	1,039	4,059	6,538	1,865	4,673	28.52	71.48

TABLE L.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat III, sprayed April 7 and June 17, being first and third applications as given Plat I, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	74	25	49	439	56	383	513	81	432	15.79	84.21
2.....	49	17	32	377	36	341	426	53	373	12.44	87.56
3.....	116	44	72	842	45	797	958	89	869	9.29	90.71
4.....	40	13	27	336	26	310	376	39	337	10.37	89.63
5.....	74	18	56	533	34	499	607	52	555	8.57	91.43
6.....	88	43	45	503	67	436	591	110	481	18.44	81.56
7.....	127	59	68	924	127	797	1,051	186	865	17.70	82.30
8.....	154	44	110	608	91	517	762	135	627	17.72	82.28
9.....	89	41	48	595	52	543	684	93	591	13.60	86.40
10.....	54	20	34	359	41	318	413	61	352	14.77	85.23
Total, trees 1-10.....	865	324	541	5,516	575	4,941	6,381	899	5,482	14.09	85.91

TABLE LI.—*Sound and wormy fruit from 10 trees of Plat IV, unsprayed check, pear orchard of Mr. G. W. Langdon, Suisun, Cal., 1910.*

Tree No.	Number of windfallen pears.			Number of pears from trees.			Total number.			Per cent—	
	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Total.	Wormy.	Sound.	Wormy.	Sound.
1.....	372	370	2	169	158	11	541	528	13	97.60	2.40
2.....	203	199	4	120	118	2	323	317	6	98.14	1.86
3.....	433	420	13	151	136	15	584	556	28	95.21	4.79
4.....	178	171	7	239	227	12	417	398	19	95.44	4.56
5.....	391	386	5	348	326	22	739	712	27	96.35	3.65
6.....	255	248	7	246	228	18	501	476	25	95.01	4.99
7.....	505	496	9	214	195	19	719	691	28	96.11	3.89
8.....	195	193	2	110	107	3	305	300	5	98.36	1.64
9.....	562	533	29	289	255	34	851	788	63	92.60	7.40
10.....	487	481	6	474	404	70	961	885	76	92.90	7.10
Total, trees 1-10.....	3,581	3,497	84	2,300	2,154	206	5,941	5,651	290	95.12	4.88

RESULTS.

The fruit from the 10 trees of the unsprayed check block was 95.12 per cent wormy and only 4.88 per cent were free from worms. Plat I (Table XLVIII) was sprayed three times and had only 5.80 per cent wormy fruit, with 94.20 per cent free from worms, giving a difference of 88.40 per cent in the amount of fruit free from worms from the two plats. Plat II (Table XLIX), which received the second and third applications (with the first spraying omitted, as given Plat I), showed 28.52 per cent wormy fruit and 71.48 per cent free from worms, as against 14.09 per cent wormy fruit and 85.91 per cent fruit free from worms for Plat III (Table L), which received the first and third applications, with the second spraying as given Plat I.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

There are practically two full broods of larvæ in the pear-growing districts of the interior counties of California. Comparatively few of the first-brood larvæ go over the winter.

The number of first-brood larvæ being relatively small, the injury is not so noticeable, and many growers overlook the importance of destroying this brood of worms to prevent the greater damage by the more important second-brood larvæ, which begin to enter the fruit just prior to the first picking.

The first-brood larvæ begin entering the fruit about a month after most of the petals have fallen, though this time may vary somewhat with the season. All spraying for the first brood should be done within three to four weeks after the blossoms are off the trees. Two applications for this brood reduced the worms for the season from 9.62 to 18 per cent lower than the plats sprayed once.

Two, and preferably three, treatments are advised, using arsenate of lead at the rate of 4 pounds to each 100 gallons of water. The first application should be made as soon as most of the petals have fallen, and especial pains should be taken as nearly as possible to fill each calyx cup with the poison. A tower platform of the type shown in Plate III is very advantageous, because at this time many buds are pointing upward. The trees should be drenched. The second treatment should come three to five weeks after the falling of the petals. The third application should be given nine or ten weeks after the falling of the blossoms, or about two weeks before the first picking begins. If only two treatments can be given, the first and second of the above schedule should be given.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97, Part III.
L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

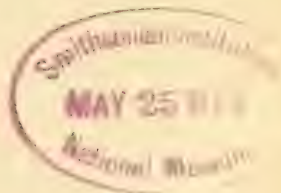
PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

VINEYARD SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST
THE ROSE-CHAFER IN THE
LAKE ERIE VALLEY.

BY

FRED JOHNSON,
Agent and Expert, Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

ISSUED MAY 17, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1911.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	53
Habits of the adult.....	54
Habits of the larva.....	56
Remedial measures.....	57
Handpicking the beetles.....	57
Spraying with arsenicals.....	58
The use of sweetened arsenicals.....	62
Time to make the spray applications.....	63
Cleaning up breeding places.....	64
Summary.....	64

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE IV. Injury by rose-chaffer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>) to fruit on unsprayed grapevine in the vineyard of Mr. C. F. Hirt, at North East, Pa.....	60
V. The protection afforded by spraying; vine from row adjoining the unsprayed vine shown in Plate IV.....	60
VI. Injury by rose-chaffer to fruit on unsprayed grapevine in the vineyard of Mr. George Cook, at North East, Pa.....	60
VII. Protection afforded by spraying; vine from vineyard of Prospect Park Fruit Farms Co., adjoining vineyard of Mr. George Cook, North East, Pa.....	60

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 16. Condition of grape blossom-buds at the time the rose-chaffer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>) first appears, and when the first poison spray should be applied.....	54
17. Injury by the rose-chaffer to grape blossom-buds.....	54
18. The rose-chaffer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>): Adult, larva and details, pupa, work	55
19. Injury by the rose-chaffer to berries of grape	56
20. Grape cluster showing almost total destruction of berries through feeding of the rose-chaffer.....	57
21. Grape cluster from which berries injured by the rose-chaffer have fallen.	58

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

VINEYARD SPRAYING EXPERIMENTS AGAINST THE ROSE-CHAFER IN THE LAKE ERIE VALLEY.

By FRED JOHNSON,
Agent and Expert.

INTRODUCTION.

The rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus* Fab.), in most of the grape-producing sections of the eastern United States, is a vineyard pest of long standing. It has been the subject of experimentation by numerous entomologists and horticulturists, who have employed against it at some time or other almost every insecticidal substance and method of combat in the whole category of insect remedies. In spite of all this experimental work, however, there is considerable skepticism among both vineyardists and entomologists regarding the complete success of poison-spray applications when the beetles are present upon the vines in large numbers. The results of vineyard experiments against this pest with a poison spray, undertaken by the Bureau of Entomology in the Lake Erie Valley during the season of 1910, have proved highly encouraging, although by no means final. It is intended to verify this work during the coming season in the hope that the efficiency of the poison-spray method may be put to the severest test.

Some of the chief factors militating against the obtaining of decisive comparative data from sprayed and unsprayed portions of vineyards is the irregularity of infestation by the insect. This difficulty is increased by the fact that in order to secure best results from poison-spray applications it is very desirable that the poison be applied as soon as the first beetles appear in order that their first meal may consist of poisoned blossom-buds or foliage. Hence, unless one has an intimate knowledge of the direction from which the beetles invade the vineyard or the portions most heavily infested it is exceedingly difficult to lay out plats which will give an accurate comparison of the results of a spray treatment.

HABITS OF THE ADULT.

About the middle of June, just before the blossom-buds of the grape break into full bloom (fig. 16), the adult rose-chafers commence to appear upon the vines. They at once proceed to attack the blossom clusters and injure the unexpanded blossom-buds by cutting

a hole through the side of the bud and eating out or injuring the small ovary. (See fig. 17.) Since the blossom-buds are quite small, a single beetle will destroy a large number of blossoms, and if the beetles are at all numerous almost the entire crop may be destroyed. Sometimes in badly infested vineyards the blossom clusters will be swarming with a squirming mass of beetles (fig.



FIG. 16.—Condition of the grape blossom-buds at the time the rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus*) first appears, and when the first poison spray should be applied. Enlarged. (Original.)

18, *f*) and the whole cluster will be quickly reduced to a frayed and blackened mass of broken and injured blossom-buds. Our observations lead us to believe that by far the greater percentage of injury to the grape crop is done previous to the opening of the blossom-buds and to a less extent while the grapes are actually in bloom and for a few days succeeding the blooming period. (See fig. 19.) Later, when the injured blossom-buds and berries have dropped,



FIG. 17.—Work of the rose-chaffer: *a*, Injury to grape blossom-buds by feeding of rose-chaffer; *b*, injury to the ovary resulting in the destruction of the berry. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

a very ragged fruit cluster is the result. (See figs. 20-21.) By the time the berries have attained the size of buckshot, or even smaller, the danger has practically passed. This danger period covers about three weeks, dating from about June 13 to July 5. It is, however, from about June 15 to 25 that the beetles appear in maximum numbers in the Lake Erie Valley, swarming into vineyards planted on light sandy soil from adjacent and rough sod lands and doing an immense amount of damage in a very short period. It is in the sandy soils of these pastures and rough sod lands along the lake shore that the insect breeds. Detached vineyards with general farm



FIG. 18.—The rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus*): a, Adult or beetle; b, larva; c, d, mouthparts of larva; e, pupa; f, injury to leaves and blossoms of grape, with beetles at work. a, b, e, Much enlarged; c, d, more enlarged; f, slightly reduced. (From Marlatt.)

lands intervening are much more likely to suffer from serious infestation than where the vineyards are continuous and practically all of the soil is under clean cultivation. Thus there is an area in the township of North East, Pa., about 2 or 3 miles in length, lying parallel with the lake shore, where the soil is of a light gravel-and-sand composition, which in former years was badly infested by rose-chafers. Within the past few years practically all of the general farm lands of this area have been broken up and planted to vineyards. These vineyards are now subject to clean culture, with the result that there has been no serious invasion by this pest over this area for several seasons.

Just beyond this strip of continuous vineyard, however, toward Moorheadville, Pa., the vineyards are more scattered and the acreage surrounding them is devoted to the more general forage crops, such as grass, rye, corn, and other grains, together with considerable areas of unbroken pastures and woodlots. These scattered vineyards have always been menaced by the invasions of this pest from their adjacent breeding grounds and serious injury has frequently resulted to the grape crop.

The prevalence of the rose-chaffer over this latter section has done much to discourage the planting of new vineyards, the general impression being that the insect can not be successfully or economically

controlled. Handpicking the beetles has heretofore been the only control method employed, and has proved not only tedious and expensive, but only partially effective. It was upon vineyards in this "rose-bug"¹ infested area along the lake shore that the spraying experiments of the season of 1910 were undertaken.

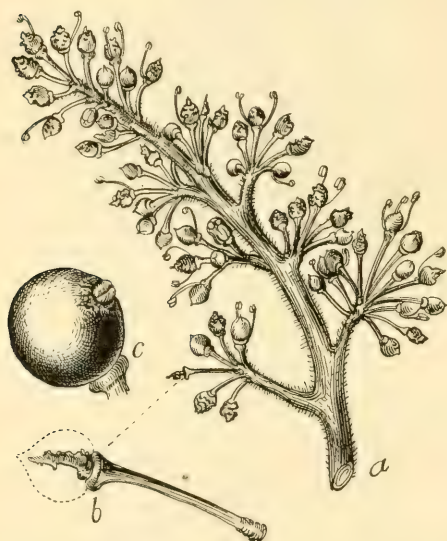


FIG. 19.—Work of the rose-chaffer: *a*, Cluster showing small berries of grape injured by feeding of rose-chaffer; *b*, berry almost eaten; *c*, large berry slightly injured when small, showing seed protruding. (Original.)

HABITS OF THE LARVA.

The larval stage of the insect (fig. 18, *b*) is spent under ground, usually among the roots of grains and grasses. The female beetle (fig. 18, *a*) burrows into the sandy soil and deposits her eggs singly in small cells in the sides of the burrow. These burrows

may be from 1 to 6 inches in depth, and the eggs are deposited irregularly in small cells in the walls of the burrow, the shallowest about one-fourth of an inch from the surface, the deepest about 4 inches below. The newly hatched larvæ may exist for some time on decayed vegetation in the soil, but they soon attack the roots of grasses and other plants, and are seldom found in large numbers in soil receiving clean culture. They are, however, quite common in ill-kept sod-covered vineyards, and in digging about the roots of grapevines for other insects single specimens of rose-chaffer larvæ are found occa-

¹ A local name for the rose-chaffer (*Macrodactylus subspinosus* Fab.).

sionally in well-tilled vineyards, although never in sufficient numbers to become a menace to the grape crop. The larvæ usually attain their full growth by late fall and at the approach of cold weather burrow down below the frost line, returning, in the following spring, to near the surface of the soil, where they make earthen cells, in which they transform to pupæ (fig. 18, *e*) and then to the



FIG. 20.—Grape cluster showing almost total destruction of berries through feeding of rose-chaffer. (Original.)

adult beetles. These beetles emerge just before the blossom clusters of grapes are ready to break into full bloom.

REMEDIAL MEASURES.

HANDPICKING THE BEETLES.

The practice most commonly employed for the control of this pest in the past has been to handpick the beetles when they appear upon the vines. Since they are quite sluggish and cling somewhat tena-

ciously to the blossom clusters large numbers of them can be destroyed in this manner. This method of control, however, necessitates that they be collected daily for a period of two or three weeks or as long as they are at all numerous. Where large areas are to be covered, handpicking becomes expensive and involves a great deal of time, and



FIG. 21.—Grape cluster from which berries injured by rose-chaffer have fallen. (Original.)

in addition to this many of the beetles are not removed from the vines until they have accomplished more or less injury.

SPRAYING WITH ARSENICALS.

Since the spraying of grapevines for other insect pests, such as the grape rootworm and the grape-berry moth, has been shown to be effective and has become a common practice, increased effort has been

made to control the rose-chaffer by the same means and more or less experimentation along this line has taken place.

Cage experiments with arsenical poisons against the beetles seemed to indicate that a large amount of arsenic was necessary to kill them. At a date previous to the general use of arsenate of lead heavy applications of arsenicals in some instances resulted in serious injury to the foliage of grapevines. This injury was caused by heavy applications of London purple, Paris green, and arsenite of lime, which are some of the more caustic forms of arsenicals. With the placing upon the market of reliable and properly-made brands of arsenate of lead, however, an arsenical is now available which can be used in large amounts without injury to the foliage of the vine. Hence there is now practically no danger of injury by arsenical burning, and in addition to this the arsenate of lead has a much greater adhesive quality than the other arsenicals previously mentioned, thus rendering its poisoning effect of longer duration.

In the field experiments against this pest during the past season, arsenate of lead was used in combination with Bordeaux mixture and in most instances at a strength of 5 pounds of arsenate of lead to 50 gallons of the spray liquid.

Experiments were undertaken in three vineyards covering 4 acres of grapevines on the farm of Page Bros., at North East, Pa., 4 acres on a vineyard owned by the Prospect Park Fruit Farms Co., and 3 acres on the farm of Mr. C. F. Hirt. Since this pest breeds outside the vineyards it is well-nigh impossible to predict, beforehand, either the extent of the infestation or the portions of the vineyard most likely to be infested, although the latter condition may be determined to some extent by close observations of local conditions over several seasons, and since it is desirable that the first feeding of the invading beetles shall be upon poisoned blossom-buds and foliage this necessitates the application of the first spray on or about the time the first beetles appear. Thus at the time of selecting a vineyard for experimental work the extent of infestation likely to occur during the season is quite problematical. The only thing to be done is to select vineyards reputed to suffer annually from invasions by this pest. In two of the experiments, those in the vineyard of Page Bros. and of Mr. C. F. Hirt, the first application was made before the grape blossom-buds had opened and before the beetles appeared.

The plat arrangement in the Page vineyard was as follows:

Rows.	Bordeaux mixture.	Arsenate of lead.	Molasses.	Water.
		<i>Pounds.</i>		
8	Lime, 3 pounds.....	5	1 gallon.....	50 gallons.
12	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	5	1 gallon.....	50 gallons.
4	Check.....			
16	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	5	None.....	50 gallons.

Two applications were made; the first on June 17, before the beetles appeared, and the second on June 23. Infestation on the vineyard proved to be rather light, and only on the ends of the rows on the west side of the vineyards which adjoined lands given over to the production of grain crops were the beetles at all numerous. Hence there was not a very marked difference between the amount of injury on the sprayed and the check plats, with the exception of a few vines on the ends of the rows where the infestation was heaviest. Here the clusters on the untreated vines were quite ragged as a result of injury by the beetles, whereas upon the treated rows no injury was apparent. In previous years it had always been the custom of the owners of this vineyard to handpick the beetles. This season no handpicking was done. On a near-by vineyard on the same farm, however, where handpicking alone was depended upon, the injury by the beetles was much more in evidence, and the owners were very sorry that they did not resort to arsenical spraying instead of handpicking, and have expressed their intention to rely upon spraying as a means of rose-chafer control in the future.

The vineyard of Mr. C. F. Hirt, in which another experiment was undertaken, is located on sandy soil on the banks of Lake Erie. It is entirely isolated from other vineyards and is adjacent to pastures and general farm lands, and has the reputation of being one of the worst infested vineyards in this rose-chafer infested area. Several years ago the vineyard was practically abandoned on account of the injury done by the rose-chafer. During the past three or four years, however, efforts have been made to control the pest in this vineyard by handpicking; yet in spite of this, beetles wrought considerable injury to the crop. At the opening of the past season the owner was prevailed on to try out the poison-spray method as a means of control, with the understanding that no handpicking was to be done. Accordingly the vineyard, which consists of about 3 acres, was treated in the following manner:

Rows.	Bordeaux mixture.	Arsenate of lead.	Molasses.	Water.
		<i>Pounds.</i>		
10	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	3	None.....	50 gallons.
6	Lime, 3 pounds; copper sulphate, 3 pounds.....	3	1 gallon.....	49 gallons.
4	Check.....			
8	None.....	3	None.....	50 gallons.

Three spray applications were made, the first on June 8, before the blossom-buds had opened (see fig. 16) and before any beetles appeared. The object of this application was to thoroughly coat all of the blossom-buds and the new growth of foliage, which was comparatively easy at this date, as the grapevines had not as yet made a very luxuriant growth. The second application was made June 17, when the first beetles appeared upon the vines, and a third on June



INJURY BY ROSE-CHAFER (*MACRODACTYLUS SUBSPINOSUS*) TO FRUIT ON UNSPRAYED GRAPEVINE IN THE VINEYARD OF
MR. C. F. HIRT, AT NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)



THE PROTECTION AFFORDED BY SPRAYING; VINE FROM ROW ADJOINING THE UNSPRAYED VINE SHOWN IN PLATE IV. (ORIGINAL.)



INJURY BY ROSE-CHAFER TO FRUIT ON UNSPRAYED VINE IN THE VINEYARD OF MR. GEORGE COOK, AT NORTH EAST, PA.
(ORIGINAL.)



PROTECTION AFFORDED BY SPRAYING; VINE FROM VINEYARD OF PROSPECT PARK FRUIT FARMS COMPANY, ADJOINING VINEYARD OF MR. GEORGE COOK, NORTH EAST, PA. (ORIGINAL.)

24, which was about the height of the rose-chaffer season in that vicinity.

At no time during the active season did the writer's visits reveal a heavy infestation of beetles upon this vineyard, although the beetles were rather numerous between the dates of June 17 and July 5 in adjoining pasture lands and upon the sumacs growing along the edges of the vineyard. Unfortunately, the check rows ran through that portion of the vineyard which proved to be least infested by the beetles and but slight injury was evident upon them. Portions of two rows on the worst infested side of the vineyard, however, were left unsprayed, and on these untreated vines the crop was practically ruined. Plates IV and V show the fruit clusters on untreated and treated vines in this vineyard from adjoining rows in the worst infested portion of the vineyard.

The result in crop yield for the whole vineyard, which comprises an area of about 3 acres, was far in excess of the yield for preceding years when the handpicking method of control had been employed. The owner stated that in the three preceding years the total annual yield had not exceeded 3 tons of fruit, whereas in the season of 1910, when the average vineyard yield for the grape belt was notably short, this vineyard yielded $5\frac{3}{4}$ tons, an increase over preceding years of $2\frac{3}{4}$ tons.

The spray applications were made with a gasoline-engine vineyard sprayer, using stationary nozzles and carrying a pressure of about 125 pounds, and applying about 100 gallons of liquid per acre.

Only one application was made on the vineyard of the Prospect Park Fruit Farms Co., on their farm located near the vineyard of Page Bros., at North East, Pa. This spray consisted of the Bordeaux mixture made from 3 pounds of lime and 3 pounds of copper sulphate, 5 pounds of arsenate of lead, and 50 gallons of water, and was made June 21, after some injury had been done by the beetles. On account of this injury preceding the spray application it was not expected that the results obtained would be worth recording. Yet as the season advanced the crop of fruit in this vineyard showed a great improvement over that produced in an adjoining untreated vineyard only a few rods distant. Plates VI and VII show vines taken at random from these two vineyards. In the former instance the crop scarcely paid for harvesting; from the latter crop a very good profit was secured.

Still other indications of the value of arsenical sprays in the control of the rose-chaffer have been observed. On the farm of Dr. R. Kelly, at Moorheadville, Pa., is a vineyard which for many years had been badly injured by rose-chafers, and in which handpicking the beetles had been only a partially successful means of control. Three seasons ago at the suggestion of the writer the owner resorted to the arsenical-spray method of control, using 5 pounds of arsenate

of lead to 50 gallons of Bordeaux mixture. The first application was made before the blossom-buds opened, and two later applications were made, applying them at the time of appearance of the beetles in injurious numbers. This method of control has been conducted in this vineyard for three consecutive seasons, and the owner states that he is satisfied with the results that he has obtained and considers it far more effective and less expensive than the hand-picking method of control.

Located at Girard, Pa., is a vineyard of 40 acres, under the management of Mr. M. C. Kibler, which is subject to the attacks of rose-chafers every season. This vineyard was visited on June 23, 1910, at which date about 20 women and girls were engaged in handpicking the beetles from the entire area. The whole vineyard had been gone over daily in this manner for a week previous to our visit, yet there was evidence of considerable injury by the beetles. At this date Mr. George F. Miles, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, was making Bordeaux-mixture applications on several acres for control of the black-rot fungus. Five pounds of arsenate of lead were added to the Bordeaux mixture applied to this area. When the party of women who were handpicking the rose-chafers did the collecting over the sprayed area on the following day, they found only a small number of beetles there as compared with the number found on the unsprayed parts of the vineyard.

THE USE OF SWEETENED ARSENICALS.

In the summer of 1907 it was reported that an arsenical spray that had been sweetened with cheap molasses had proved effective in poisoning the rose-chaffer in the vineyards in Michigan. In September of that year the writer visited Mr. Frank Stainton, at Lawton, Mich., who was reported to have used this sweetened arsenical. In conversation with Mr. Stainton it was discovered that this sweetened arsenical was a proprietary mixture made by a local doctor. Mr. Stainton stated that he received a sample of it rather late in the season and applied some of it to rosebushes infested by the rose-chaffer. The beetles appeared to be attracted to the sweetened poison, eating it in apparent preference to the flowers of the plant, and died shortly after. Upon analysis this sweetened arsenical was found to consist of arsenite of lime and molasses. Mr. Stainton expressed his intention to use sweetened arsenite of lime against the rose-chaffer in his vineyards during the season of 1908. In the spray experiments conducted in the vineyard of Dr. R. Kelly, at Moorheadville, Pa., in 1908, against the rose-chaffer, 1 gallon of molasses was added to 50 gallons of Bordeaux containing arsenite of lime made according to Kedzie's formula (4 ounces of white arsenic to 50 gallons of the above-mentioned sweetened mixture). One gallon of molasses was also added to Bordeaux mixture and arsenate of lead, and in addi-

tion to this a third plat was sprayed with arsenate of lead and Bordeaux containing no molasses. In this work it was not possible to detect that the beetles exhibited a greater preference for the foliage or blossom clusters sprayed with the sweetened arsenical, nor was there evidence of a greater benefit from rose-chaffer protection on the plats sprayed with the sweetened arsenicals as against the plat sprayed with the unsweetened arsenical. Where the arsenite of lime was applied there was evidence of a slight burning of the tender foliage, which was not apparent where the arsenate of lead was used. During the seasons of 1909 and 1910 the writer used, on adjoining plats, molasses and arsenate of lead with the Bordeaux mixture, and also arsenate of lead unsweetened and Bordeaux mixture, employing in both cases 5 pounds of arsenate of lead to 50 gallons of the mixture. In none of these experiments was there detected any decided benefit from the presence of the molasses. Reports are persistently circulated that good results have been secured by the addition of some sweetening substance, either molasses or glucose, and since the rose-chafers feed upon the flowers and nectaries of grapes and other fruits it is reasonable to suppose that the presence of a sweetened substance in the spray would attract them. The increased expense of the molasses is but slight, and it is suggested that the vineyardist using arsenicals in combating the rose-chaffer employ a sweetened arsenical on a portion of his vineyard and compare results with a portion treated with an unsweetened arsenical. Until more data is at hand on this subject the writer, while not wishing to discourage the use of a sweetened arsenical against the rose-chaffer, feels that the results which have come directly under his observation do not appear to justify the recommendation of its general use.

TIME TO MAKE THE SPRAY APPLICATIONS.

In regard to the cost of spray application for the control of this pest, it should be pointed out that the entire cost should not be charged to rose-chaffer control, since it is highly desirable that a spray application be made before the blossom-buds expand against the grape-berry moth (*Polychrosis viteana* Fab.), and also for fungous diseases. The later spraying just after blossoming is also necessary against the grape rootworm (*Fidia viticida* Walsh). No additional spray applications were made on the vineyard of Mr. F. C. Hirt after June 24. Yet there was practically no evidence of feeding by the beetles of the grape rootworm on the treated portion of the vineyard, nor was there any evidence of mildew on these vines, whereas on the untreated check rows there was a large amount of feeding by the grape rootworm beetles, and the clusters of fruit were also very badly mildewed. Hence the evidence secured during the past season indicates that if vineyardists, in regions where the rose-chafers commonly occur in injurious numbers, will resort to a thor-

ough spray application with arsenate of lead and Bordeaux mixture before the blossom-buds of the grape expand (fig. 16), and once or twice during the period when the rose-chafers are most numerous, they can not only prevent serious injury to the crop by this pest, but also control the depredations of several other chewing insects.

CLEANING UP BREEDING PLACES.

In addition to spraying as a means of control for this pest, much good can be done by breaking up pastures and rough sod lands adjacent to vineyards in infested areas. An illustration of this method of control was observed during the past season. In the early summer of 1909 a field of 30 acres of pasture land on the farm of Mr. R. McBroon, at North East, Pa., which is located in the rose-chaffer-infested area along the lake shore, was broken up and planted to vineyard. Large numbers of larvæ and pupæ were found in the sod at the time of plowing. During the summer of 1909, after the vines were planted, the soil was subject to clean culture. During the summer of 1910 numerous examinations of the soil were made in this vineyard in search of larvæ and pupæ, but none was found. Yet in the sod lands adjacent to this vineyard the beetles and larvæ were as numerous as in previous years. Unfortunately, it frequently happens that rough land and pastures adjacent to vineyards are not controlled by the owners of infested vineyards. When such conditions exist it is necessary to resort to direct methods of control, and observations covering several seasons indicate that thorough spray applications with arsenate of lead will prove an effective means of controlling the rose-chaffer in infested vineyards.

SUMMARY.

On account of the limited areas of infestation in any particular vineyard section the rose-chaffer has not received the consideration it deserves as a destructive vineyard pest. In the aggregate its injuries to the grape crop in the grape-producing areas of the United States are very large, and it is hoped that the experimental work now in progress will lead to the adoption of more effective means of control. Since it has become the practice to spray grapevines for the grape-berry moth (*Polychrosis viteana*), and also for fungous diseases at the same time that the adult rose-chafers attack the blossom-buds, every effort should be made by vineyardists to combat this pest at the same time. The experiments conducted by this bureau during the past season indicate that a very thorough application of arsenate of lead when the beetles appear, just before the blossoms open, will reduce its destructiveness to the extent that a profitable crop of fruit can be secured even in vineyard areas where this insect pest abounds in destructive numbers.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97, Part IV.
L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER.

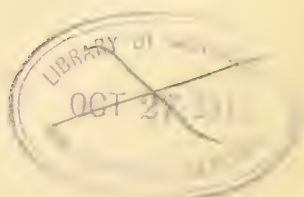
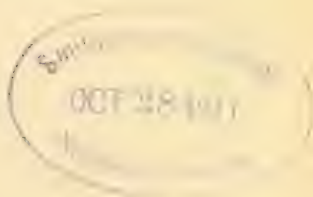
BY

DUDLEY MOULTON,
Formerly Special Agent, Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

ISSUED OCTOBER 17, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1911.



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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	65
Distribution and food plants.....	66
Distribution.....	66
Native food plants.....	67
History of fruit growing in the Santa Clara Valley.....	67
Limits of areas in which injury occurs.....	67
Varieties of cultivated fruits attacked; resistant budding and grafting stocks; soil conditions as bearing on infestation.....	68
Descriptions, seasonal history, and habits.....	68
The egg.....	68
Description.....	68
Development and hatching.....	68
Fertility.....	69
The larva.....	69
Feeding habits of newly hatched larvæ.....	69
Period when entering trees.....	71
Character of injury.....	71
Number of broods and length of larval period, as shown by "worming" records.....	71
Feeding habits within the burrow.....	74
The pupa.....	74
Formation, structure, and position of cocoon.....	74
Description of pupa.....	75
Length of pupal period.....	75
Earliest, maximum, and latest appearances of pupæ.....	77
The adult.....	77
Habits of newly emerged moths.....	77
Original description and subsequent notes.....	78
Earliest, maximum, and latest appearances of moths.....	79
Flight, feeding, and mating.....	80
Oviposition.....	80
Length of life of the moths.....	82
Natural enemies.....	83
Methods of control.....	83
Experiments with preventives.....	83
"Worming" and applying washes in the Santa Clara Valley.....	85
Formulas for washes used.....	86
The carbon bisulphid treatment.....	87
Methods used against the eastern peach borer.....	87
Summary and recommendations.....	88
Bibliography.....	88

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE VIII. The California peach borer (<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>). Apricot orchard, showing trees injured and killed by the borer	68
IX. The California peach borer. Rearing cages in laboratory yard at San Jose, Cal., used in study of its life history	80
X. The California peach borer. Fig. 1.—Base of apricot tree, showing injury by larvæ. Fig. 2.—Wire cage, used in determining period of emergence of moths, in place around tree	80

TEXT FIGURE.

FIG. 22. The California peach borer: Adult, larva, pupa, and details	70
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PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER.¹

(Sanninoidea opalescens Hy. Edw.)

By DUDLEY MOULTON,

Formerly Special Agent, Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTION.

The California peach borer (*Sanninoidea opalescens* Hy. Edw.; fig. 22) has been the subject of investigation by the Bureau of Entomology since the summer of 1907. The writer, however, had observed its habits and the various methods used in its control for several years previous to that time and vividly recalls spending many hours in his father's orchard digging "borers" from the trees and later applying the protective washes. As a boy he was taught that this practice was quite as necessary in the general scheme of orchard treatment as was pruning or cultivating. This insect has been a menace to fruit growers in the Santa Clara Valley from the very beginning of the fruit-growing industry and the constant care and the disagreeable labor which accompanies the digging of the borers has led many orchardists to become intimately well acquainted with it in the larval or borer condition. (See Pl. VIII.) Many men of their own accord have experimented with various methods of control. Orchardists seldom recognize the adult moths and know little about their habits, although they know the larval stage so well.

The California peach borer derives its common name from its close relationship to the peach borer of the East (*Sanninoidea exitiosa* Say), and from the fact that it is primarily an enemy of the peach and other closely related plants. Systematically, the species is closely related to the eastern peach borer, and it is difficult to distinguish the two species by comparing the larval stages alone. The female moth of the eastern form, however, is readily distinguished from the moth of the western species by the presence of conspicuous orange

¹ The present paper gives the results of observations on the California peach borer made by Mr. Moulton while engaged in deciduous fruit insect investigations in the Bureau of Entomology and located at San Jose, Cal.

bands extending across the fourth and fifth abdominal segments, these bands not being present in the western form. The eastern insect has been known as an enemy to peach trees in the Eastern States for almost 200 years, as is evidenced by the numerous accounts which have appeared in horticultural and entomological journals. It is distributed throughout the eastern and middle-western peach-growing sections and undoubtedly has been introduced into California on nursery stock, although it does not yet seem to have become established there. The California and eastern borers choose similar food plants and attack and injure trees in the same ways, and the methods of control are therefore similar. The California borer is apparently a western American form exclusively and a native of the Western States. It is considered a serious pest only in limited areas in the San Francisco Bay district.

The writer endeavors to discuss in this paper what is known of the distribution of the California peach borer, its life history, its food plants, its parasites, and the best known artificial measures of control. He wishes to express his thanks to those of his associates, Messrs. Charles T. Paine and P. R. Jones, who have at different times helped in making the life-history records, and to various orchardists who have furnished trees for the purpose of experiments and who have helped to make the work practical.

DISTRIBUTION AND FOOD PLANTS.

DISTRIBUTION.

The California peach borer has been known to entomologists since 1881, when Henry Edwards collected a few specimens and described the species as *Egeria opalescens*,¹ and since then it has been known variously as *Sanninoidea opalescens* and *S. pacifica* Riley. In his first account of the insect, Henry Edwards told of having collected three male specimens in Virginia City, Nev., and he also had one type female, which had been collected by Morrison and was listed from Colorado. Later, Beutenmüller gave, as the habitat of the species, Oregon, California, and Nevada. Mr. F. X. Williams, formerly of the California State Commission of Horticulture, has collected one specimen at Donner Lake, Nevada County, Cal., at an elevation of 6,000 feet. He has also collected many specimens in flight near Castello, in Shasta County, at an elevation of 2,000 feet. Other collectors of Lepidoptera have also taken it in these same mountainous sections of California. The insect is known as a pest only in the Santa Clara Valley and in Alameda and San Mateo Counties, whose areas lie close around the southern arm of San Francisco Bay.

¹ See description, p. 78.

NATIVE FOOD PLANTS.

Mr. J. G. Grundell, who has been a resident in the mountains above Alma, Santa Clara County, since 1894, has many times collected moths on the wing in the foothills lying above the Santa Clara Valley, and he has furnished the only positive record of the rearing of this species from any native plants. Mr. Grundell was at one time experimenting in his little mountain orchard with cuttings of the western chokecherry (*Cerasus demissa*) as a native grafting stock for cultivated fruit varieties. This plant suckers readily and these suckers were cut and planted to be used as stocks for grafting. Mr. Grundell, by keeping such cuttings as became naturally infested confined in jars, was able at many times to rear adult moths of the California peach borer. The western chokecherry is indigenous to the Sierra Nevada Mountains, middle North Coast Range (Napa Mountains), Oakland Hills, Mount Hamilton Range, and the Santa Cruz Mountains, and it is undoubtedly one of the common native food plants of this insect.

HISTORY OF FRUIT GROWING IN THE SANTA CLARA VALLEY.

Mr. Grundell says that he has never collected or found the moths in flight in deep woods, but that they seem rather to seek the open or bushy country. He states also that the insect was most easily collected in the hills immediately at the edge of the Santa Clara Valley, and it was here, in the adjoining valley, that the insect first became injurious. The lower foothills and the upper western areas of the Santa Clara Valley were at one time covered with a dense growth of underbrush, which included especially the western chokecherry. Beginning about the year 1880 this land was gradually cleared and planted to orchards. Thus the cultivated varieties displaced some of the insect's native food plants in its native habitat. It was therefore natural for the insect to adapt itself to those cultivated plants which were closely related to the native varieties, and to extend its habitat into the open and adjoining country. The soil and climate are here especially well adapted to the growing of deciduous fruits, such as peaches, apricots, cherries, and plums, and the entire valley is now practically one continuous orchard. The insect attacks all of these species quite freely and here finds ideal conditions in which to live.

LIMITS OF AREAS IN WHICH INJURY OCCURS.

The writer can not understand why an insect which is so widely distributed throughout the western coast States should be so local in its injury in cultivated orchards. The Santa Clara Valley, the areas on either side of San Francisco Bay in Alameda and San Mateo Counties, and small areas near Watsonville, Santa Clara County, are

the only places where the peach borer has become a pest. Other peach, apricot, and plum sections in the Napa, Sonoma, Suisun, and San Joaquin Valleys and on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada Mountains are not troubled at all.

VARIETIES OF CULTIVATED FRUITS ATTACKED; RESISTANT BUDDING AND GRAFTING STOCKS; SOIL CONDITIONS AS BEARING ON INFESTATION.

The peach borer is eminently a root-boring pest, and two factors, therefore—the kind of root stocks upon which the trees are growing, and the nature of the soil—determine largely the amount of damage that the borers will inflict. Peach and apricot stocks are most susceptible to attack, although almond, cherry, apple, and native plums are less so; and the wild plum, known as the Myrobalan or cherry plum (*Prunus cerasifera*) is almost entirely exempt. Myrobalan plum seedlings are imported in great quantities from Europe and they are now recognized as one of the best stocks upon which to graft domestic plums. This stock is especially susceptible to attack only when a tree has been weakened by some cause such as a lack of water or cultivation or when it has been partly killed by “gophers” or other rodents. Almond stocks are more or less resistant if planted in soils suitable to their growth. Borers appear to attack trees more readily when they are planted in soils of a light sandy or gravelly texture. The writer does not believe that newly hatched larvæ can reach the lower crowns or roots more easily in light than in the heavy soils of loam or clay; it appears, rather, that the trees themselves are not so strong and are therefore not so resistant.

DESCRIPTIONS, SEASONAL HISTORY, AND HABITS.

THE EGG.

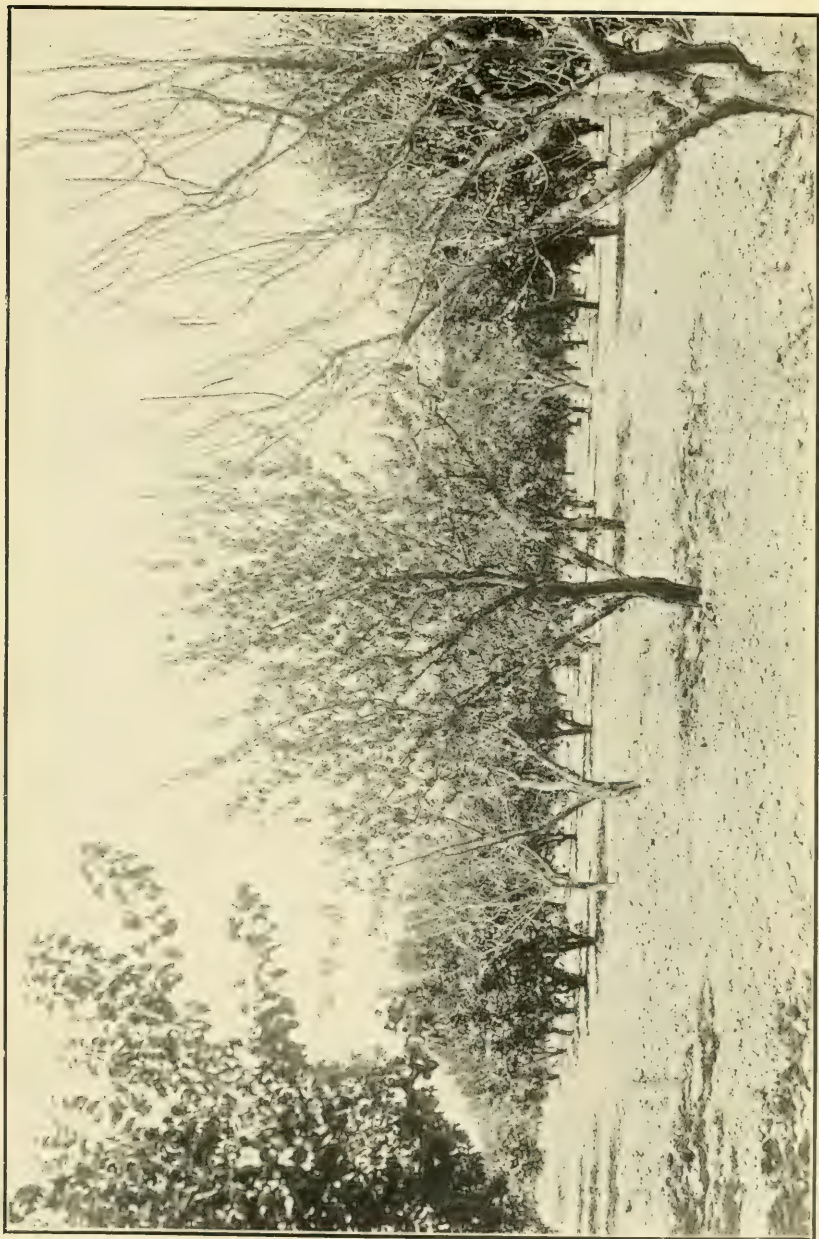
DESCRIPTION.

The egg of the California peach borer measures approximately 0.72 mm. in length and 0.44 mm. in width. It is flattened and depressed on the sides and is depressed at one end. The eggs are chestnut to dark-brown in color and when magnified the outer surface has a stippled and mosaic appearance. The sculpturing so characteristic of the eggs of the eastern peach borer¹ is also apparent on the eggs of the California peach borer (*Sanninoidea opalescens*).

DEVELOPMENT AND HATCHING.

The writer was able to make constant and daily observations on oviposition by moths which were confined in out-of-door rearing cages built over small apricot and peach trees in the back yard of the

¹ Bul. 176, Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta., p. 180.



THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER (*SANNINOIDEA OPALESCENS*). APRICOT ORCHARD, SHOWING TREES INJURED AND KILLED BY THE BORER. (ORIGINAL)

insectary, and to note the development of the eggs. (See. Pl. IX.) Oviposition under these conditions was more or less unnatural, but the eggs thus placed developed under perfectly normal conditions. The period from oviposition to the time of hatching, as indicated in Table I, lasted from 11 to 19 days, with an average of 14 days. There were several hundred eggs in each lot.

TABLE I.—*Length of egg stage of the California peach borer (Sanninoidea ovaleseens).*

Lot No.	Date eggs placed.	Date eggs hatched.	Number of days.
1.....	July 8-9.....	July 27-28.....	19
2.....	July 18.....	July 31.....	13
3.....	July 20.....	Aug. 3.....	14
4.....	July 21-22.....	Aug. 1-4.....	11 to 14
5.....	do.....	Aug. 3-6.....	13 to 15
6.....	July 23-24.....	Aug. 7.....	14 to 15

In escaping, the larva breaks a circular hole through the micropylar or depressed end of the egg and leaves the eggshell attached to the tree. The eggshell remains thus attached throughout the summer and fall until early winter rains dissolve the glue by which they are attached.

FERTILITY.

Many eggs gathered from different rearing cages in our numerous experiments were noted to determine what proportion was fertile, with the results shown in Table II.

TABLE II.—*Proportion of fertile eggs of the California peach borer.*

Lot No.	Fertile eggs hatched.	Sterile eggs not hatched.	Total.	Lot No.	Fertile eggs hatched.	Sterile eggs not hatched.	Total.
1.....	43	3	46	8.....	196	3	199
2.....	42	42	85	9.....	55	0	55
3.....	75	3	78	10.....	202	3	205
4.....	139	15	154				
5.....	71	3	74	Total.....	1,225	116	1,342
6.....	204	44	248	Percentage.....	91.28	8.72	100
7.....	198	0	198				

THE LARVA.

FEEDING HABITS OF NEWLY HATCHED LARVÆ.

The newly hatched larvæ (fig. 22, *a*) are extremely active and move about freely and they may crawl for a considerable distance from the egg. After hatching they immediately seek out protected places, either by hiding in cracks of the bark or under particles of dirt or loose bark, or they go below the surface of the ground and then at once begin to enter the tree.

Newly hatched larvæ were closely observed many times as they entered the bark. We were never able to watch newly hatched

larvæ enter the bark of trees in the open field, but it was commonly observed in a laboratory experiment in which apricot branches were planted in pots of soil. The branches were about one-half inch in diameter and cut in lengths of about 12 inches, and were planted in pots or moist sandy soil. The upper cut ends of the branches were waxed over, while the lower untreated ends were embedded about 4 inches in the sand. Clusters of eggs were placed on the branches several inches above the soil, just as they would normally be found in the field. The larvæ, which were very active, immediately sought suitable places to begin their burrows, which were sometimes started

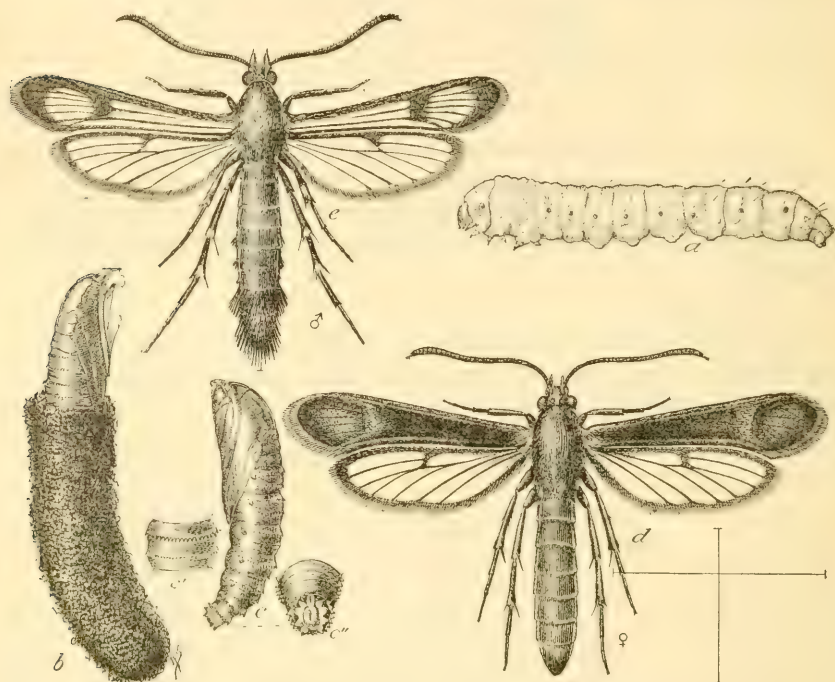


FIG. 22.—The California peach borer (*Sanninoidea opalescens*): a, Larva; b, cocoon and pupal skin; c, pupa; c', abdominal segments of same; c'', caudal end of same; d, adult female; e, adult male. Much enlarged. (Original.)

even under the eggshells; at other times, at a considerable distance from them. Enough of their burrows were made and enough frass ejected within a couple of hours to completely cover their bodies. Always on the second day they would be found well under the bark and to have conspicuous piles of frass above them. They entered any small cracks or irregularities of the bark or where the bark had been injured and where leaves or small twigs had been cut off. They seldom attempted to enter on a clean surface above the ground. Most of the larvæ penetrated the surface of the soil and entered at the lower cut ends. Entering below the surface of the ground is a

characteristic habit of the larva in the open field. Whatever the surrounding conditions they sought protected places first where they could easily penetrate to the tender inner bark. The larvæ in these experiments fed freely after a period of three weeks, when many of them were about one-eighth of an inch in length.

In the open field many larvæ enter the trees through old burrows, thus at once finding protection in the inner bark. Newly hatched larvæ have been kept in vials and fed on apricot leaves for several weeks, and they probably could have been kept much longer if fresh leaves had been properly supplied.

PERIOD WHEN ENTERING TREES.

It is seen in Table V, p. 79, that a few moths begin to fly about the 1st of June, that they are flying in maximum numbers during July and August, and that few are flying during September. Table I, p. 69, shows that the egg period lasts about two weeks, as oviposition begins immediately after the moths emerge. Consequently the larvæ begin to enter the trees during the last half of June, and they enter in maximum numbers during July and August and the first half of September. The last larvæ would be hatching and entering the trees during late September or possibly during early October.

CHARACTER OF INJURY.

Peach-tree borers usually live below the surface of the ground, but under certain conditions and on rare occasions they are to be found attacking the trunks and even the large branches. The silver prune is subject to attack in this way, and frass and the exuding gum are often found on the larger branches several feet above the ground. When a tree becomes completely girdled the worms move upward or downward into the still-living tissues, and many worms in this way may encircle and eat all of the sapwood for from 12 to 16 inches above the surface of the ground. This usually occurs during the spring, when there is a general upward movement and when the worms are preparing to pupate.

NUMBER OF BROODS AND LENGTH OF LARVAL PERIOD, AS SHOWN BY "WORMING" RECORDS.

The long period in which the larvæ are entering the trees results in a great variation in the size of the larvæ at any time of the year. This has led to the belief that there may be more than a single annual brood. Numerous worming records indicate, however, that the insect is strictly single brooded. It often lives less than a year, but seldom longer. Larvæ that hatch in the early spring or summer change to moths early during the following season. Unfavorable conditions will delay a few, which will mature in midsummer or fall, and in this case their life period is longer than twelve months. Larvæ

which hatch during the midsummer or in the fall usually mature during the same period of the following year. If, however, a tree has been weakened or is near to its death, the borers will invariably mature in the early spring or summer, when their life cycle will be much less than the regular twelve months.

Monthly worming records were made during a period of about two years, and although for many reasons these records can not be compared they offer much of interest. The first plan—to mark off a badly infested orchard into uniform plats and to dig all of the worms regularly from month to month on each of these plats—was not entirely satisfactory. The infestation in any orchard is extremely variable. One tree may harbor from 50 to 70 or more larvæ, while those immediately surrounding may be entirely immune. It was necessary, therefore, to find infested trees regardless of the position in the orchard when each record was made, and all worms which were collected on any one date, although they may have been gathered from many trees in various parts of the orchard, constituted the basis for the record for that particular period. Some trees would harbor 1 or 2 and others from 50 to 70 worms. (See Pl. X, fig. 1.) The 1907-8 records were taken mostly from large apricot trees, and those for 1908-9 from apricot, prune, and peach trees.

TABLE III.—Records of larvæ of the California peach borer taken from trees, 1908-9.

Date.	Number of trees examined.	Kind of tree.	Number of larvæ small to half grown.	Number of larvæ half to full grown.	Total number of larvæ.	Number of pupæ.	Number empty pupal cases.	Remarks.
1908.								
May 5		Prune.....			Several	0	0	Prunes on Myrobalan plum root, and not badly infested.
15						Several	0	
18						2	0	
23	19			Many	Many	10	8	Pupæ and empty pupal cases from dead trees; hence very advanced stage of insect.
24	4	Apricot...	7	127	134	19	0	All trees completely girdled; most worms were nearly grown.
26	2	...do.....	0			15	4	Both trees completely girdled.
June 18	10	Peach.....	8	33	41	0	0	
19	12	...do.....	11	75	86	2	0	
20	3	...do.....	9	63	72	14	0	
July 14	2	Apricot...	2	1	3	23	17	Trees almost completely girdled.
20	2	...do.....	0	12	12	10	47	Both trees completely girdled.
Nov. 5	3	...do.....	9	16	25	0	0	
6	6	...do.....	16	46	62	0	0	One tree contained 8 larvæ, 7 of which were in crotches above the ground.
Dec. 8	4	...do.....			113	0	0	
1909.								
Jan. 5	5	...do.....			67	0	0	Larvæ were of all sizes.
Feb. 5	5	...do.....	76	13	89	1	0	Larvæ in this record mostly small; one larva in newly formed cocoon.

TABLE III.—Records of larvæ of the California peach borer taken from trees, 1908-9—Continued.

Date.	Number of trees examined.	Kind of tree.	Number of larvæ small to half grown.	Number of larvæ half to full grown.	Total number of larvæ.	Number of pupæ.	Number empty pupal cases.	Remarks.
1909.								
Feb. 5	5	Apricot			19	0	0	Larvæ of all sizes.
Mar. 4	4	do.			87	0	0	Do.
May 6						1		Larvæ in cocoon; second for the season.
20	9	Peach	0	9	9	1		Old peach trees only slightly attacked; all larvæ in cocoon; third for season.
21	1	Apricot	0	12	12	0	0	All larvæ nearly full grown.
June 4	Several	Peach	0	20	20	7	0	Still active larva in just finished cocoon.
6	2	Apricot	0	33	33	1	0	All pupæ and empty pupal cases in nearly dead trees.
9	12	Peach	0	20	20	5	2	Larvæ all nearly full grown; 10 pupæ and 2 empty cases from a nearly dead tree.
10	20	do.			34	13	2	Prune trees on almond or Myrobalan plum-root stocks, and mostly in good condition.
24	7	Prune	0	20	20	26	0	Do.
26	10	do.	0	60	60	3	1	Larvæ nearly all full grown; 40 pupæ, 13 larvæ in cocoon, empty pupal cases in nearly dead trees.
26	10	do.	7	47	54	0	1	Do.
26	8	do.	0	76	76	53	Several	Trees about 8 years old, completely girdled; most larvæ in crown from surface of ground to 14 to 16 inches above; 34 pupæ, 19 larvæ in cocoons.
26	21	Apricot	0	87	87	48	36	The very few larvæ taken were apparently of the new brood.
July 28	10	do.		45	45	51	0	Four larvæ removed from trees began to spin their cocoons July 30, 1909.
7	5	do.	Several	20	20	30	16	
22		do.		14	14	2		

The worming records, so far as they are related to the larval stages, may be summed up as follows:

Newly hatched and very small larvæ were found from early in June to October and November. Half-grown larvæ can be found at any time during the year. Larvæ which are fully grown during the summer usually transform to moths during late summer or fall, while larvæ which are full grown during the fall and winter transform to moths early during the following spring. Larvæ more than half grown to full grown are most numerous during the winter and spring. Larvæ are apparently active throughout the winter and are never entirely dormant.

FEEDING HABITS WITHIN THE BURROW.

There is no regular method of forming a burrow. After the borers have penetrated into the cambium layers, they may move upward or downward or to the side. The burrow may be long and narrow or short and broadened. The larva moves about in its burrow at will and cleans out the frass and exuding gum and ejects it through the outer opening and because of this the opening often becomes a more or less conspicuous tube of such castings. The castings and exuding gum are quite conspicuous and always indicate the presence of worms and show where the burrows are. Where many worms completely girdle a tree there are no individual burrows, and the worms may then be feeding closely together.

THE PUPA.

(Fig. 22, *b*, *c*.)

FORMATION, STRUCTURE, AND POSITION OF COCOON.

The mature larva selects a place to form its cocoon near some kind of an opening where the adult moth can readily escape. This may be near the entrance to the burrow, or near a break in the bark, or if under unbroken bark the worm may eat out a small round exit hole before it goes into the cocoon. Larvæ which are located in the larger roots pupate in the usual way if these roots are near the surface. On May 26, 1908, during the process of worming 6 pupæ were dug out from a root and in this case they were 12 to 15 inches away from the trunk of the tree. Larvæ often move out from the lower roots and also occasionally leave the tree trunk and pupate a few inches below the surface and in the open soil several inches away. On one occasion 7 empty cocoons were found from 1 to 5 inches away from the tree and from 1 to 3 or 4 inches below the surface. Occasionally pupæ may be found 2 feet or more above the ground in the lower branches. On June 10, 1907, 2 pupæ were found in the sun-burned area on a large branch, several feet above the ground.

The cocoon is constructed of chewed particles of bark and wood, excreta, and gum, and bound together by a silken web and lined inside with silk. The completed cocoon is exceedingly tough and strong and rather rigid. The anterior end alone is thin and weak and offers only a little resistance when the mature pupa begins to force its way out. Cocoons which are located in the soil are made of particles of earth, but they, like others, are held together and lined with silken threads. The cocoon is elongate oval in shape and about an inch in length. Female cocoons are larger than those of males, although they, too, are sometimes abnormally small when

they are found in a tree which has been completely girdled and dies prematurely.

A cocoon may be placed with its anterior end directed upward, sideways, or downward, and it usually has a clearly open space in front, so that the pupa will not be hampered in getting out and so that the issuing moth will also find an easy exit. Of 26 empty pupal cases collected on July 20, 1908, from a completely girdled dead tree, 15 were so placed that the emerging moths could escape directly to the open air, but 11 were found under the large expanse of dead bark and could get out only through rather distant openings.

DESCRIPTION OF PUPA.

The late Prof. Slingerland, in his bulletin on the eastern peach-tree borer, states that the male pupa can be readily distinguished from the female by its more slender shape and smaller size and by the double row of spines across the seventh abdominal segment, which bears the last or caudal spiracles. These same sexual differences are also clearly characteristic of the western borer.

The pupa is normally dark-brown in color. It is, however, very light brown when first formed and almost black-brown just before the moth issues. The beaklike anterior tip is strong and sharp and easily cuts through the weak anterior end of the cocoon. In leaving the cocoon the mature pupa hitches itself forward by means of the numerous backwardly directed dorsal spines and forces itself about half way out from the cocoon, and immediately the shell splits along the dorsal side and the moth issues. The posterior end of the pupa remains fastened to the cocoon for an indefinite period after the moth has gone.

LENGTH OF PUPAL PERIOD.

The individual pupation record given in Table IV indicates clearly the length of time required in the several changes during the process of pupation.

TABLE IV.—*Individual pupation records of the California peach borer.*

Number.	Date larva introduced.	Date beginning to spin cocoon.	Date cocoon finished.	Date of changing to pupa.	Date of exit of moth.	Number of days spinning cocoon.	Number of days from finish of cocoon to pupation.	Length of pupal stage.	Number of days from entering cocoon to exit of moth.
1.				May 24	July 6			43	
2.				June 4	6			32	
3.				4	9			35	
4.				4	12			38	
5.				4	12			38	
6.			June 4	8	20		4	42	
7.	June 5	June 26	July 6			10			
8.				9	12			23	
9.				9	12			33	
10.	10	26	6			10			
11.				10	9			29	
12.				10	14			34	
13.				10	15			35	
14.			June 10	22	21		12	29	
15.	24	30	July 9		Aug. 16	10			47
16.			June 24	26	2		2	37	
17.			24	28	3		4	36	
18.			24	29			5		
19.	25			28	2			35	
20.	25			9	11			33	
21.	25	July 1	July 6	14		6	8		
22.	25	2	6	14	17	5	8	34	46
23.	26	1	6	14	16	6			46
24.	26	1	6	14	17	6	8	34	47
25.	26	2	6	14	18	5	8	35	47
26.	26	1	6			6			
27.	26	2	9	17		8	8		
28.	26	1	8			8			
29.	26	1	6	12		6	6		
30.	26	2	6	14		5	8		
31.				1	5			35	
32.				6	7			32	
33.				8	9			32	
34.				9	10			32	
35.	26	1	6	10	16	6		35	46
36.	26	1	6	13	17	6	7	35	47
37.	26	1	6	14	18	6	8	35	48
38.	26	1	8	20		8	12		
39.	26	1	8	14	18	8	6	35	48
40.	26	1	6	12	18	6	6	37	48
41.	26	1	6	12	16	6	6	35	46
42.	26	1	6	12	17	6	6	36	47
43.	26	1	6	13	17	6	7	35	47
44.	26	1	6	14	18	6	8	35	48
45.				June 29	2			34	
46.				July 2	4			33	
47.				2	5			34	
48.				2	6			35	
49.				16	10			35	
50.	28	1	9	16		9	7		
51.	28	1	6	14		6	8		
52.	28	1	9		18	9			48
53.	28	1	6	12	17	6	6	36	47
54.	28	1	9	14	18	9	5	35	48
55.	28	1	6	14	18	6	8	35	48
56.	28	1	8	16	23	8	8	38	53
57.	28	1	6	16		6	10		
58.	28	1	6	24	26	6	18	33	56
59.	28	1	6	15		6	9		
60.	28	1	6	12	19	6		38	49
Total.						232	232	1,500	1,007
Average (days)						6.1	7.3	34.88	47.95

The process of spinning the cocoon, as above indicated, occupies about 7 days, and there then follows another period of about a week before pupation is apparent. The larva is inactive during this second period, but wakes up immediately if disturbed or if it is torn from the cocoon. The larva has strength to spin a second cocoon, but in doing so becomes so weakened that it seldom if ever transforms to a moth. The pupal stage occupies a period of about 35 days. The insect is actually in the cocoon from 46 to 56 days.

EARLIEST, MAXIMUM, AND LATEST APPEARANCES OF PUPÆ.

During the season of 1908 the first pupa of the season was found on April 29, but at this time most larvæ were still active and not ready to change to pupæ. On May 15 several cocoons were found which contained quiescent larvæ, but none of them contained pupæ. No empty cocoons had been observed up to this time. Numerous pupæ found on May 23, 24, and 26 indicated that the period of pupation had begun.

Four recently killed trees were examined on May 23 and 26, and besides numerous pupæ 12 empty pupal cases were found. These trees had been completely girdled by numerous borers and had died early in the spring, so that a lack of food had caused the borers to hasten through to maturity. These cases were the first for the year and they indicated that this was the beginning of the period when moths were flying. All of these early individuals which were found in dead trees were undersized and the males were about as large as the females.

During the season of 1909 one quiescent larva in a cocoon was found on February 5 and the first pupa on May 6. On May 19 a second pupa was found. One empty pupal case, the first of the season, was found on the same day; this, again, indicated that the time for flight of the moths was beginning.

Pupæ and empty pupal cases were found frequently during all the summer, but pupæ were found in maximum numbers during June, July, and August. The first or earliest empty pupal cases were always collected from trees that were dead or nearly dead and the cases were usually undersized. The later maturing individuals were always found on healthy trees.

THE ADULT.

(Fig. 27, *d*, *e*.)

HABITS OF NEWLY EMERGED MOTHS.

When a moth has just emerged its wings are soft blackish pads and lie on the surface of the back, but immediately they begin to open out and after 10 or 15 minutes are fully expanded. The moths

are active and jump about in an erratic way and at first are aided only slightly by the partly developed wings. As the wings expand the moth rests for a few minutes until the wing tissues are set, and it then immediately flies away. Newly emerged moths, when confined in rearing cages or jars, buzz and throw themselves against the sides of the cage with comparatively great force.

ORIGINAL DESCRIPTION AND SUBSEQUENT NOTES.

Henry Edwards in 1881 described the adult of the peach-tree borer under the name *Egeria opalescens*.¹ The description is as follows:

Steel blue, the fore wings with the opaque spaces greenish black, the vitreous spaces very opalescent, with a few silvery scales, hind wings with bright opalescent reflection. Fringes of both wings purplish black. Beneath the silvery scales of fore wings are much more numerous, extending over the whole vitreous surface. Head, palpi, and antennae, deep jet black. Thorax concolorous with fore wings. Abdomen, dark steel blue. The whole of the under surface greenish black, the tibiae having at their base a tuft of whitish hairs. Spurs whitish, speckled with black.

Exp. wings 28 mm.

3 males, Virginia City, Nevada. (H. E.)

1 female, Colorado (Morrison).

Type: Coll. Hy. Edwards.

Later, Beutenmüller, in his Monograph of the Sesiidæ, changed the name of the insect to *Sanninoidea opalescens*,² and gave the following notes on its description.

Male.—Head, thorax, and abdomen entirely black. Legs black with white tufts. Fore wings transparent with black margins. Transverse mark and outer margin very broad. Hind wings transparent with black border. Underside of wings same as above.

Female.—Head, thorax, abdomen, and legs wholly bronzy black, forewing opaque, bright metallic green black. Hind wings transparent, opalescent, outer margin and fringe blue, or green black. Underside same as above.

Expanse: Male 25-30 mm; female 30-34 mm.

Habitat: Nevada, California, Washington, Oregon.

Types: Two males. Coll. Hy. Edwards, Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. Male and female *S. pacifica*. Coll. U. S. Nat. Mus.

Beutenmüller also adds that *Sanninoidea opalescens* differs from the eastern peach borer, *Sanninoidea exitiosa*,

By having the transverse mark and outer margins of the fore wings of the male much broader. In the female the fore wings are opaque, the hind wings transparent and the abdomen wholly blue or green black.

The striking difference between the two species, however, is that the upper part of segment 4 in the females of *Sanninoidea exitiosa* is orange colored, while the dorsal segments in *Sanninoidea opalescens* are uniformly steel blue-black.

¹ Papilio, vol. 1, no. 10, p. 199, 1881.

² Monograph of the Sesiidæ of America, North of Mexico, vol. 1, Part VI, Mem. Amer. Mus. Nat. Hist., p. 271, 1896.

EARLIEST, MAXIMUM, AND LATEST APPEARANCES OF MOTHS.

The first moth during the season of 1908 was found resting on an apricot leaf near the crotch of a tree on April 16, and on May 15 another was seen in a similar position. On these same days two or three empty cocoons were found, which indicated that other moths had also emerged. The data in Table V indicate the period when moths are flying.

TABLE V.—Records of emergence of moths of the California peach borer, 1908-9.

1908 record, Kelly orchard, 35 trees.				1909 record, Henly orchard, 19 trees.			
Date.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Date.	Males.	Females.	Total.
June 6.....	2	1	3	July 1.....	3	0	3
15.....	1	5	6	7.....	3	0	3
23.....	4	2	6	14.....	4	1	5
29.....	9	2	11	21.....	8	6	14
July 5.....	9	1	10	28.....	2	2	4
13.....	9	11	20	Aug. 4.....	1	3	4
20.....	10	10	20	11.....	5	1	6
27.....	8	12	20	18.....	3	8	11
31.....	8	11	19	25.....	7	5	12
Aug. 3.....	6	13	19	Sept. 3.....	3	1	4
10.....	10	10	20	10.....	0	0	0
17.....	0	3	3	17.....	1	1	2
27.....	1	3	4	24.....	0	1	1
Sept. 7.....	0	1	1	30.....	1	0	1
15.....	0	0	0				
Total.....	77	85	162	Total.....	41	29	70

These records of emergence of moths for the two seasons of 1908 and 1909, respectively, were taken from series of wire-mesh traps (Pl. X, fig. 2), which were placed around the lower trunks of apricot trees. During the season of 1908 the records were made in an uncultivated orchard about 3 miles from San Jose. Thirty-five wire cages were placed around as many trees, and the moths which emerged were collected at regular intervals of a week, except that they were collected every two or three days during the period of maximum emergence. The records for the season of 1909 represent moths collected from the cages which had been placed around apricot trees in another orchard.

A perusal of the table indicates that an average of 5 moths emerged from each of the 35 traps during the season of 1908. An average of 8 moths per tree and a maximum of 27 moths from a single tree were recorded during the season of 1909. The record of 1908 shows an emergence of more females than males, and the records of the following year just the opposite. This fact probably has no special significance, since the totals in either case are not sufficiently large to be of value in determining the relative number of either sex. A few moths are thus to be seen flying in April and May and many more during July and the first half of August. A few late individuals appeared during September.

FLIGHT, FEEDING, AND MATING.

The moths for the most part fly within a few feet of the ground and move in an erratic way, dashing from place to place or from tree to tree. Individuals flying into or over the tops of large trees are only rarely seen. Males are often found buzzing and hovering around trap cages in which females are confined. Both sexes are extremely active and hard to catch. Moths are often seen resting on leaves or on trunks of trees.

Moths have never been observed in the act of feeding. Drops of sweetened liquids and honey were placed on apricot leaves in the trap cages, but the moths were never seen even sipping at this.

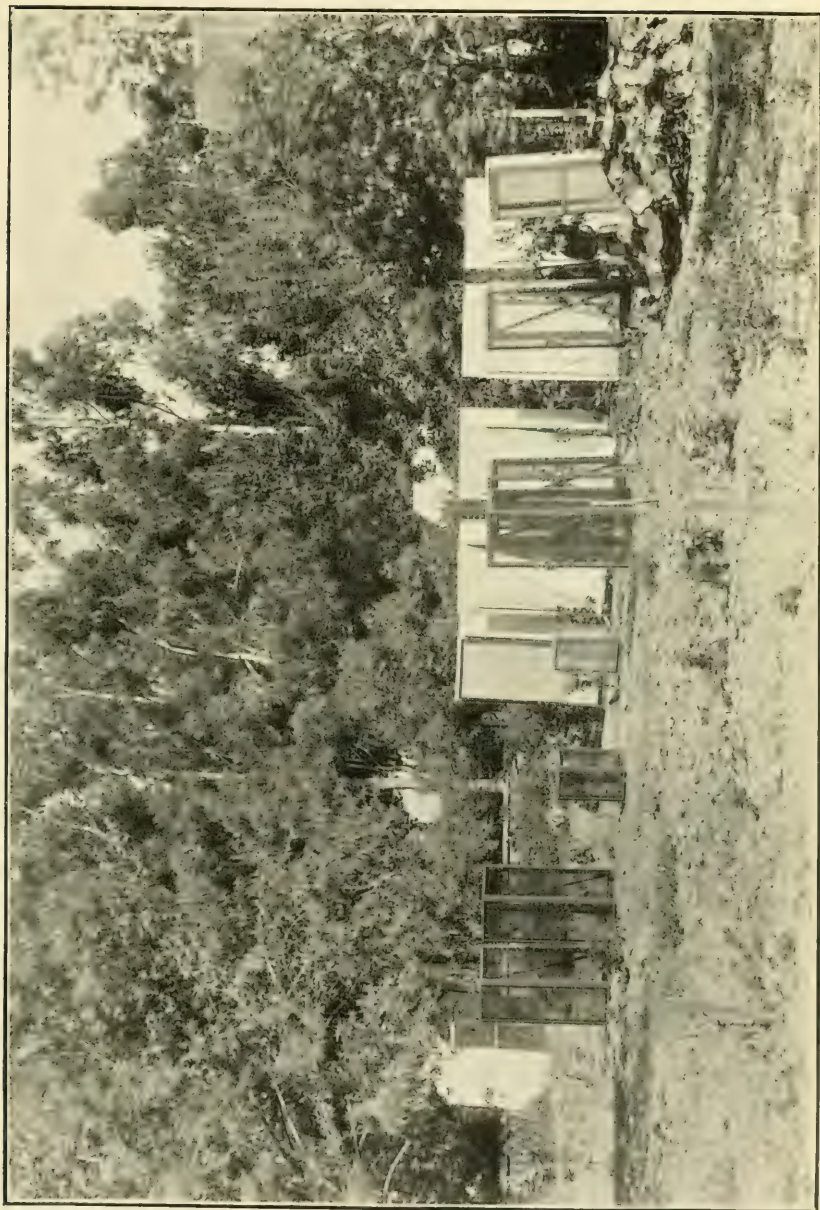
Mating occurs as soon after the moths have emerged as the male and female can come together. Individuals from separate rearing jars only a few minutes after issuing from their cocoons were observed to copulate as soon as they were placed together in the same rearing cage. In one instance a male which was known to have mated a few hours previously was placed in a cage with a newly issued unimpregnated female. Both alighted on the ground and copulation took place immediately—so quickly, in fact, that one could not follow the movements. The individuals remained in copulation 1 hour and 20 minutes. The previous copulation of this male had lasted 1 hour and 17 minutes. Other matings have been observed to last as long as 1 hour and 30 minutes. Copulation was observed many times.

OVIPOSITION.

Female moths begin to place their eggs within a few hours after emerging from the cocoons. They have been observed in rearing cages to mate during the forenoon and to place eggs in the afternoon—never later than the following day. Within two or three days oviposition is completed and the moths die.

The rearing cages for the life-history study of the insect were about 2 feet square and 6 feet high, with wire-mesh cloth on all sides. They were placed over small apricot trees which had been planted for this purpose in the back yard of the insectary. (See Pl. IX.) The moths thus introduced were out of doors, could fly and mate under almost normal conditions, and it was found that oviposition and egg development could be watched easily.

Within the rearing cages the moths placed their eggs at random, on the small trunks, stems, and leaves of the trees, and even on the inside of the cages. Most of the eggs, however, were placed on the underside of the leaves. A moth would fly to a branch and rest on it for a few minutes, and after placing a few eggs would quickly fly away and soon repeat the operation. Eggs were placed sometimes singly, but mostly in groups of from 2 or 3 to 25 or 30 or more. A moth was observed to alight on a leaf, place 2 eggs in about 10 seconds, and then fly away.



THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER. REARING CAGES IN LABORATORY YARD AT SAN JOSE, CAL., USED IN STUDY OF ITS LIFE HISTORY. (ORIGINAL.)

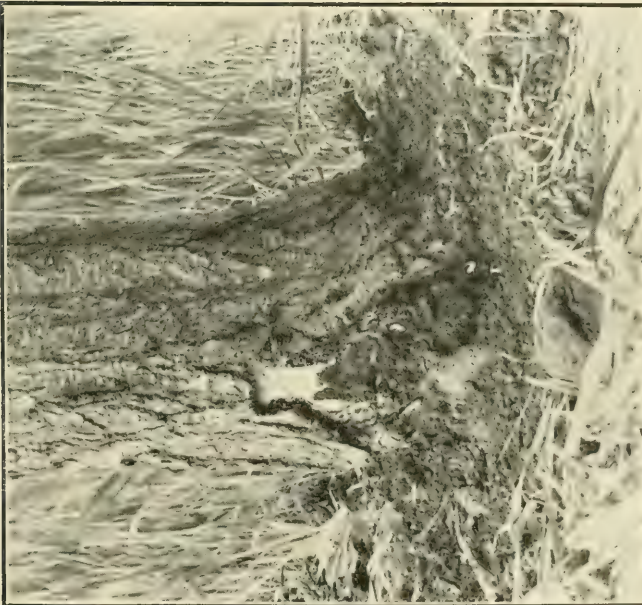


FIG. 1.—BASE OF APRICOT TREE, SHOWING INJURY BY LARVÆ.
(ORIGINAL.)



FIG. 2.—WIRE CAGE, USED IN DETERMINING PERIOD OF
EMERGENCE OF MOTHS, IN PLACE AROUND TREE.
(ORIGINAL.)

THE CALIFORNIA PEACH BORER.

Numerous records of oviposition by moths which were confined in cages indicate that the favorite place is on the lower surface of the leaves (Table VI).

TABLE VI. — *Oviposition of moths of the California peach borer within the rearing cages.*

Cage No.	Eggs placed on wood of cage.	On branches.	On upper surface of leaves.	On lower surfaces.	Total.
1.....	55	16	14	119	204
2.....		66	49	53	168
3.....			272	474	746
4.....		20	144	40	204
5.....			48	220	268
6.....	55	66		102	223
Total.....	110	168	527	1,008	1,813

Moths flying in the open field always place their eggs on the lower trunk a few inches above the surface of the ground. The eggs are arranged in groups as in the rearing cages. A careful examination of branches and leaves of several trees in a badly infested orchard showed no eggs elsewhere than on the lower trunk, but many groups of eggs were found on individual trees. A moth was once observed to fly and alight on the trunk of an apricot tree about 5 inches from the ground. She soon moved 2 or 3 inches higher and remained there about two minutes, placing about 12 eggs; she then flew rapidly away until she was lost to sight. Thirty other eggs which had been placed at some previous time were also observed near this group. All were within a radius of 2 inches and were grouped in numbers of from 3 to 10. They were not definitely arranged. Clusters of eggs can be found easily on the lower trunks of trees in any badly infested orchard.

The eggs on a single five-year-old apricot tree in the open field (Kelly orchard) were numbered and grouped as follows: 2, 3, 3, 6, 8, 8, 9, 10, 27, and there were about a dozen scattered, singly-placed eggs. All were between 1 and 2 inches above the surface of the ground. On a second tree 44 eggs, all near the surface, were grouped as follows: 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 4, 6, 8, 13. All the eggs on both these trees were hatched when examined (Aug. 10, 1908).

Records of oviposition by individual moths may be listed as follows: 294, 275, 205 (6 + 199 dissected), and 412. Eight unmated females which were placed in confinement oviposited as follows: 5, 6, 11, 11, 25, 43, 50, 83, and in each case the moth died before the second day.

Table VII, which is a record of oviposition by individual moths, indicates how soon oviposition begins after mating, how long it continues, the number of eggs placed, and the life of the moth. All moths were introduced into the individual cages immediately after they were taken from the trap cages in the field.

TABLE VII.—*Mating and oviposition of the California peach borer.*

Individual No.	Moths introduced into cages.	Mating.	Oviposition begins.	Oviposition completed.	Period of oviposition.	Moth dies.	Life of moth.	Number of eggs deposited.	Unhatched eggs dissected from body.	Total number of eggs.
1	1908. July 17.....	1908. July 17, 9 a. m.	July 18..	(?)	About 3 days.	July 22..	Days. 5	136	144	280
2	do.....					July 20 (male). July 22 (female).	3 5	66	482	548
3	do.....	July 17, ¹ 10.50 a. m. to 12.10 p. m.	July 18..						(²)	
4	July 18.....	Not observed	July 20..			July 22 (6 male, 5 female).	1	305	319	624
5	July 20 (9 male, 9 female).		July 21..			July 23 (1 male, 3 female). July 24 (2 male, 1 female).	0 0			
6	July 22.....	Not observed	July 23..	July 24..	2 days.....	July 25..	3	204	65	269
7	July 22, noon.	do.....	July 23, 9 a. m.	do.....	do.....	do.....	3	268	123	391
8	July 23.....	do.....	July 24..	July 25..	do.....	do.....	2	168	126	294
9	July 27, noon.	do ³	July 29..	July 29..	1 day.....	July 29..	2	6	193	199
10	do.....	July 27, 9.30 to 11 a. m.	July 28, 9 a. m.	July 28, noon.	4 hours.....	July 28, noon.	1	92	166	258
11	July 27, 2 p. m.	Not observed	do.....	July 29, 6 p. m.	2 days.....	July 29, 6 p. m.	2	639	98	737
12	Aug. 3, 11.30 a. m.	do.....	Aug. 3, 3 p. m.	Aug. 5, 5 p. m.	3 days.....	Aug. 6..	3	210		
13	do.....	do.....	Aug. 4, p. m.	Aug. 7, p. m.	2 days.....	Aug. 5..	2	163		
14	Aug. 5, 10.30 a. m.	do.....	Aug. 6..	Aug. 7, p. m.	do.....	Aug. 8..	3	59		
15	Aug. 7, 3 p. m.	do.....	Aug. 8..			Aug. 10..	3	298		
16	Aug. 10.	Aug. 10, 10.30 a. m. to 12 noon.				Aug. 12..	2	262		
17	do.....	Aug. 10, 10 a. m. to 12 noon.	Aug. 10..	Aug. 14..	5 days.....	Aug. 15..	5	118		

¹ Male had mated previously with another female for 1 hour and 17 minutes.² Many eggs laid, but none hatched.³ Male had mated previously.

Table VII indicates that moths began oviposition a few hours after issuance, or at the latest on the following day. The period of oviposition of a single moth is seldom longer than two or three days, and the moths die immediately thereafter.

LENGTH OF LIFE OF THE MOTHS.

Moths which were kept from mating were found to die without having placed any or at least only a few eggs. Female moths die immediately after oviposition is completed. Males die soon after mating. Oviposition within the rearing cages would begin within a few hours (8 to 10) after mating, and always within 24 hours; it would be completed within 3 or 4 days and none was observed to live longer than 5 days.

NATURAL ENEMIES.

There is a species of ant which has been observed many times to attack adult moths, pulling them to pieces and literally eating them alive. It often happened that a moth would become entangled in the creases of the wire mesh or in the cotton of our trap cages where the traps were bound around the tree. Almost invariably their bodies would soon be torn to pieces by these ants. The ants presumably are not of economic importance in controlling the moth of the borer.

On another occasion a nest of small white mites was taken from the body of a dead moth, as well as a dipterous larva.

METHODS OF CONTROL.

EXPERIMENTS WITH PREVENTIVES.

Six large apricot trees in the insectary yard were treated as follows: The dirt was first dug away from the lower trunks to a depth of 8 or 10 inches, the bark was scraped, the few worms present were removed, and the lime-oil wash was applied over the newly exposed bark and to a height of 16 or 18 inches above the ground. The mixture was swabbed on thickly with a large calcimining brush and was applied on June 25, 1908.

On August 4, 1908, six weeks later, numerous clusters of eggs just ready to hatch were selected from the rearing cages and attached to the treated trees at a height of from about 5 to 10 inches above the ground, where they would normally be placed on untreated trees in the open field. This experiment was made under extremely unnatural conditions, because eggs are apparently never placed directly on any treated surface. It served our purpose, however, which was to determine the number of young that could really penetrate through the wash and get into the tree. The wash was still in a good condition on August 4, when the eggs were attached. Table VIII gives the details of the experiment and the results of examination of trees September 21.

TABLE VIII.—*Details of experiment No. 1 with protective lime-oil wash against the California peach borer.*

Tree No.	Number of eggs placed on tree.	Position of eggs on tree.	Number of eggs hatched.	Date of hatching.	Remarks.
1	46	5 inches above ground on north side of tree.	43	Aug. 12	No sign of borers found.
2	85	do.....	42	do.....	Do.
3	78	do.....	75	do.....	3 empty pupal cases found.
4	154		139	Aug. 25	No sign of borers.
5	74	2 inches above ground.....	71	do.....	3 empty pupal cases.
6	248	On lower trunk.....	210	Aug. 26	No sign of borers.
	685	Total.....	580		6 moths matured.

Table VIII indicates that a total of 580, or about 80 per cent, of the 685 eggs hatched, but only 6 worms (about 1 per cent) were able to penetrate through the lime-oil wash, enter the trees, and finally mature to moths. Former experiments (see Table II) show a higher percentage of fertile eggs. A great discrepancy between the number of eggs which hatch and the worms which actually are able to enter the trees had been previously noticed. There is also a great mortality of larvæ, as is evidenced by the number of worms which may be found in any tree and the number of moths that may mature later. The almost complete immunity of these trees is not, therefore, attributed entirely to the effectiveness of the lime-oil wash.

Experiment No. 2.—The Wilson experiment was planned to determine the danger of injury by applying crude oils directly and in combination with lime to peach trees and also to determine the value of these oils as repellents or barriers against the entrance of borers. Crude oils have been applied directly to various fruit trees by orchardists in the Santa Clara Valley, and their application has proved fairly successful. Occasional injury has been reported. Peach and apricot, and especially the younger trees of these varieties, are very sensitive to oil, and it is believed that there must be more or less injury to other trees. The crude oil is undoubtedly a most effective barrier to keep newly hatched worms from entering the trees, and it also penetrates and draws many more mature worms out to their death. The oils, therefore, have a distinct and decided insecticidal effect against the borers.

The Wilson experiment was arranged in three plats—Plat I, with 10 trees (numbered 1 to 10, inclusive), Plat II, with 5 (numbered 11 to 15), and Plat III, with 10 (numbered 16 to 25). The earth was removed, the borers dug out, and the bark scraped, as in experiment No. 1. The various remedies were applied on June 20, 1908.

Plat I was treated with the lime-oil mixture, which is recommended as formula No. 1. It was applied just as it was used in the previous experiment. Three gallons of the mixture were sufficient to treat the 10 trees.

Plat II was treated with a light grade of pure crude oil known as Coalinga crude oil, 22° Baumé. This was likewise applied with a large brush and in similar way to the lime-oil mixture. One gallon was sufficient to treat these five trees.

Plat III was treated with a heavier grade of oil known as Kern crude oil, or about 14 to 16° Baumé. This oil was cold and heavy and rather hard to apply. Three gallons were sufficient to treat the 10 trees.

The earth was immediately replaced around all of the trees after the treatment.

The trees were examined from time to time, and injury from the oils was soon apparent. Early in October most of the leaves on the trees in plats Nos. 2 and 3 had fallen, and the remainder of the leaves were curled and nearly ready to drop. There was a marked contrast between the oil-treated trees and those which were treated with the lime-oil wash or which were not treated at all. Trees treated with the lime-oil wash were apparently in normal condition. The oil-treated trees again in the spring of the following year were in a weakened condition, and by June 1 trees No. 13 in Plat II and 23 and 25 in Plat III were dead. All trees in Plat I and the adjoining check trees were in normal condition and possessed a bright, healthy, green foliage. It is very evident that peach trees can not be safely treated with crude oil alone, although the lime-oil combination appears altogether safe. The trees in this experiment were examined from time to time to notice any new infestation of the insects, and no worms or pupæ or pupal cases were ever found on any of the treated trees, although numerous worms infested the surrounding check trees.

In addition to the attack which would normally be made by moths living in the open field, several trees were subjected to attack by placing fertile eggs on them as in experiment No. 1. Table IX shows the number of the eggs, where they were placed, and the results of examination of trees June 10, 1909.

TABLE IX.—*Details of experiment No. 2 with protective washes against the California peach borer.*

Plat No.	Tree No.	Number of eggs.	Number hatched.	Date of hatching.	Number matured.	Remarks.
I.....	6	163	150?	1908 Aug. 17	None.	} No larvæ, pupæ, or pupal cases taken from any of the treated trees, although infestation was common in adjoining check trees.
	8	41	34	Aug. 12		
II.....	11	144	136	do.....	None.	
III.....	22	225	216	Aug. 13	None.	
Total.....		573	536		None.	

"WORMING" AND APPLYING WASHES IN THE SANTA CLARA VALLEY.

The method of controlling the borer as practiced by orchardists in the Santa Clara Valley is to "worm" the trees by hand during the winter or spring months and later apply a protective wash before the dirt is thrown back. Some orchardists, however, dig the borers out without giving any subsequent treatment. The digging out process is the most important and most effective. The earth is shoveled away from the crown of the tree, the dirt and old bark scalings are scraped off, and the worms are cut out by hand. An ordinary three-fourths-inch wood chisel and a horseshoe knife are

now conceded to be the best tools in use. A combined scraper, chisel, and rounded worming blade has been used extensively, but tools of this kind do not contain the fine quality of steel that is found in other knives and chisels and they soon become dull. The bark is often broken rather than cut when such tools are used, and this works serious injury to the tree. The curved worming blade is especially harmful, because it is forced into the burrow and great pieces of living as well as dead bark are broken off. The tool is convenient because it combines the scraper, chisel, and worming point, but its convenience can not offset the better work of the ordinary chisel and knife.

There are two periods during the winter and the spring months when worming can be done to advantage. Worms are from half to full grown and can be easily seen during the winter. They are more or less dormant, and if cut out at this time the trees will be spared the later injury which would follow their feeding during the spring. It is also more convenient to orchardists to dig for borers at this time because of a freedom from other work. Spring worming is also quite as effective as when this work is done during the fall. A protective wash should be applied after "worming" has been accomplished. Such a wash acts primarily as a repellent and keeps adult moths from placing their eggs on such treated trees. This wash should be applied during the months of May or early June, when moths are beginning to fly. If the wash is applied after worming in the fall it deteriorates and cracks and falls away from the tree before the time when oviposition occurs. It is considered just as good practice to dig the borers during the fall as in the spring, but in any case the wash should again be applied in May or early June. The wash also serves in a secondary way to render the labor of subsequent worming much more easy and rapid. The dirt and bark scalings fall from the washed tree more easily than from those unwashed, and the masses of frass, indicating the presence of borers, are also more easily discovered.

FORMULAS FOR WASHES USED.

The following washes have been used extensively for controlling borers in the Santa Clara Valley and elsewhere:

Formula No. 1.—The lime-crude oil mixture: Place about 50 pounds of rock lime in a barrel and slake with 10 or 15 gallons of warm water; while the lime is boiling, slowly pour in 6 or 8 gallons of heavy crude oil, and stir thoroughly. Add enough water to make the whole a heavy paste. The wash should be applied immediately with a heavy brush.

Formula No. 2.—The lime-sulphur-salt mixture: Place about 25 pounds of rock lime in a barrel and slake with warm water. Add 2 quarts of sulphur and 2 or 3 handfuls of salt while the lime is still boiling. This wash is heavy and is applied with a brush.

Formula No. 3.—Lime, coal tar, and whale-oil soap: Unslaked lime 50 pounds, coal tar $1\frac{1}{2}$ gallons, whale-oil soap 12 pounds. Slake the lime in warm water and add the gas tar while the mixture is boiling; dissolve the soap separately in hot water and add this to the lime solution. Add enough water to make a heavy paste.

THE CARBON BISULPHID TREATMENT.

Carbon bisulphid has been recommended extensively, but its use is now discouraged. Moisture conditions in the soil are so variable that no set rule to determine the amount of liquid which shall be used can be followed, and if the treatment should be preceded by a rain, or if the ground be especially damp, the gas-treated soil can not be left around the tree without immediate injury. The carbon bisulphid method has been more or less successful when an orchardist has done his own work for several years and when he himself places the charge and recognizes the danger. Serious damage is most likely to follow if the remedy is applied by an inexperienced man. Another disadvantage of the carbon bisulphid treatment is that it does not remove the dead or decaying bark above after the cambium layers have been killed by the borers. Hand cutting is never practiced after this treatment, and the tree can never heal its wound as it does when the dead bark is cut away.

METHODS USED AGAINST THE EASTERN PEACH BORER.

Some of the methods of treating the eastern peach borer have been used, but with little success. Paris green and glue washes have nearly always injured the trees. Paris green is not valuable as an insecticide against borers because the larvæ do not take any part of the wash directly into their stomachs. Hydraulic cement has been used for the purpose of placing a hard coating over the bark so the borers can not penetrate through into the tree. It has been used apparently with only negative results. The hard covering of cement cracks easily as the tree expands and offers little or no resistance to the borers. Numerous combinations of rosin and white or green paints have proved of no value, and there usually follows some injury to the trees. "Mounding" as practiced in the Eastern States consists in building up a cone-shaped pile of dirt around the lower trunks. This is done during the early spring or summer, and its object is to force moths to oviposit high up in the crown of the trees. The young larvæ are thus deceived and enter the bark usually high up under this loose soil and are easily exposed when later the mound of dirt is removed. This method is not practiced against the California peach borer, although it might be used with success. Surrounding the tree with paper or other wrappings has been practiced commonly in the East, but not successfully in California. The long, dry California summers, which necessitate constant spring and summer cultivation, tend to lessen the effectiveness of such wrapping or mounding.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

The life habits of the California peach borer may be summed up as follows: Adult moths are flying from June to and including September, and are present in maximum numbers during July and August. As they place their eggs immediately after emerging, the period of oviposition conforms with that of the flight of the moths.

The egg stage lasts about two weeks, so that the period when the newly hatched larvæ are entering the tree is about from the middle of June to the middle of October. The period when they are entering in maximum numbers is from the middle of July to the middle of September. Any repellent or protective wash, therefore, should be applied before the middle of June.

Worming should be practiced during the winter or early spring months, and it is very important that only sharp tools be used. The bark should be cut and not broken from the tree and so far as possible only dead bark should be cut away. The most effective wash that can be used in conjunction with the worming method is considered to be the lime-crude oil formula No. 1. Heavy crude oil is thought to be repellent to the borer moth and acts to draw many of the worms out, but it is extremely injurious to some trees. It is apparently safe when combined with lime. Such preparations as residuum oil, gas tar, or asphaltum can be applied directly to the bark of the tree with only a little danger, but common practice has demonstrated that a combination with lime is almost as efficient and far safer than the crude oil alone.

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97, Part V.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

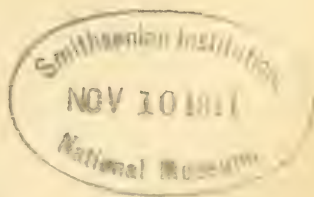
NOTES ON THE PEACH AND
PLUM SLUG.

BY

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Agent and Expert, Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

ISSUED NOVEMBER 6, 1911.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1911.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	91
Observations on the peach and plum slug in 1910.....	92
Life history.....	94
The adult.....	94
Oviposition.....	94
The egg.....	96
The larva.....	96
The prepupa.....	98
The pupa.....	99
Total developmental period.....	100
Extent of damage.....	100
Natural enemies.....	100
Remedies.....	102

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE XI. Peach leaves showing work of peach and plum slug (<i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i>)	92

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 23. Cage used in rearing the peach and plum slug	93
24. Developmental stages of peach and plum slug (<i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i>): Adult, egg, larva, and pupa	95
25. <i>Hyperallus caliroæ</i> , a parasite of the peach and plum slug	101

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

NOTES ON THE PEACH AND PLUM SLUG.

*(Caliroa [Eriocampoides] amygdalina Rohwer.)*By R. A. CUSHMAN,
Agent and Expert.

INTRODUCTION.

On August 7, 1909, the writer's attention was attracted by a peculiar injury to the leaves of a peach tree standing in the yard of the Delta Boll Weevil Laboratory at Tallulah, Madison Parish, La. (See Pl. XI.) This injury consisted in the skeletonizing, with subsequent curling and falling, of the leaves by a small, yellowish-white, sluglike larva, resembling very closely in form the pear slug (*Eriocampoides limacina* Retz.). Investigation showed that most of the peach trees in the neighborhood were more or less severely injured. On August 16 an abundance of small black sawflies was observed alighting on a variety of trees and shrubs, and it was immediately thought that these were the adults of the sluglike larvæ on the peach trees. From the close resemblance of both the larvæ and the adults to those of the pear slug it was at first supposed that the insect in question must be of that species, but comparison of the adults with the description of the pear slug showed differences. Specimens of the adults were therefore sent to Mr. S. A. Rohwer of the Bureau of Entomology, who stated that they belonged to a species new to science. Mr. Rohwer has described the species as *Caliroa (Eriocampoides) amygdalina*.¹

What is undoubtedly the same species was discussed and figured by Prof. H. A. Morgan, in 1897,² under the name *Caliroa (Selandria) obsoletum*, and the common name "peach and plum leaf sawfly." His article covers a little more than 3 pages, and embraces notes on the biology and natural enemies of the species and remedial measures.

¹ Entomological News, vol. 22, no. 6, pp. 263-265, figs. 1-6, June, 1911.² Report of the Entomologist, Bul. 48, 2d ser., La. Agr. Exp. Sta., pp. 142-145, 1897.

Owing to the lateness of the season and the press of other work in the fall of 1909, very little in the way of biological studies of this new species could be accomplished, although several unsuccessful attempts were made to carry the larvæ through to the adult stage.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PEACH AND PLUM SLUG IN 1910.

In the spring of 1910 a careful watch was kept for the insects, and the earliest recorded observation was made on April 1, when two adult sawflies were observed on a peach tree. This is probably very near to the first date of appearance of the species, since careful search did not reveal larvæ until April 7. On this date 6 larvæ one-third grown and 5 eggs were found. Morgan (l. c.) states that the adults may be seen at any time from the middle of March until cold weather. His observations were made at Baton Rouge, La., about 130 miles south of Tallulah, La.

On April 21 several larvæ were taken, feeding on the leaves of a plum tree in the laboratory yard. From this time on, and under generally warm, dry weather conditions, the infestation increased gradually until April 24, when a severe frost killed all but a very few of the immature stages, including all of those directly under observation on the trees. Following the freeze came a long, cold drought, unbroken until May 18 and followed by about a week of daily heavy rains. This, in turn, was followed by more cold weather. From the middle of June until the first week in July there were almost daily heavy rains. This combination of unfavorable weather conditions held the species in check to such an extent that it was difficult to find it in any stage. On July 12, 7 full-grown larvæ and a number of small larvæ were found, the latter probably hatched since the last rain. None between these two stages was observed. After this time frequent observations were made and considerable rearing work done.

While before the freeze of April 24 all of the trees in the laboratory yard had suffered about equally from the depredations of the insects, from this time until about the middle of August the infestation was confined almost entirely to two trees, which stood within a few feet of the north side of the house, and which were further sheltered by a large pear tree and a persimmon tree. For a long time the injury was practically confined to the lower branches close to the house and under the pear and persimmon trees. But as the season advanced and the supply of suitable leaves in those locations failed the infestation spread over these two trees and to the other peach trees and the plum trees in the yard. Whether it is the normal habit of the species to confine its work as closely as possible to its breeding place, or whether the concentration noted was due to the fact that the adults which survived the freeze sought a sheltered location for depositing their eggs, is not quite clear. However, the earlier



PEACH LEAVES, SHOWING WORK OF PEACH AND PLUM SLUG (*CALIROA* [*ERIOCAMPOIDES*] *AMYGDALINA*), (ORIGINAL.)

observations seem to indicate that the females normally infest the lower branches first, gradually going higher and higher as the destruction of the lower leaves progresses.

On September 15 occurred a very hard shower, accompanied by a high wind, that destroyed a large percentage of the larvæ that were on the trees at the time. This constituted another setback from which the species had hardly recovered when cold weather set in.

On October 5 practically all of the accessible foliage of the trees in the yard was examined and no stage of the sawfly found, except 8 eggs. These were all located on one leaf and had apparently all been parasitized.

In the earlier attempts at life-history work great difficulty was experienced on account of the delicacy of the young larvæ and the large death rate among them when transfer by hand from one leaf to another was attempted. In addition to this, it was found impossible to follow a given lot of larvæ through to maturity if left on the tree, because of their habit of moving over considerable areas and their consequent loss. The attempts to curb this tendency resulted only in the death of the larvæ. Also, the adults refused to oviposit under any form of restraint. For these reasons a special method of procedure was adopted and a special rearing cage designed. Many uninfested terminal clusters of leaves were marked with blank string tags. These clusters were examined daily, and

when eggs were found on any of the leaves the infested leaves were marked by clipping the tips and a lot number was placed on the tag, the number corresponding to a card on which notes were recorded. The leaf cluster was then allowed to remain on the tree until just before or just after the hatching of the eggs, when the whole cluster was cut off with a long stem and transferred to the rearing cage. This cage (fig. 23) consisted of a tumbler of sand, into the center of which was thrust a vial and at the side a tube open at both ends. The stem was placed in water in the vial and held upright by a perforated cork. The tube reached well toward the bottom of the tumbler, and was for the purpose of watering the sand without

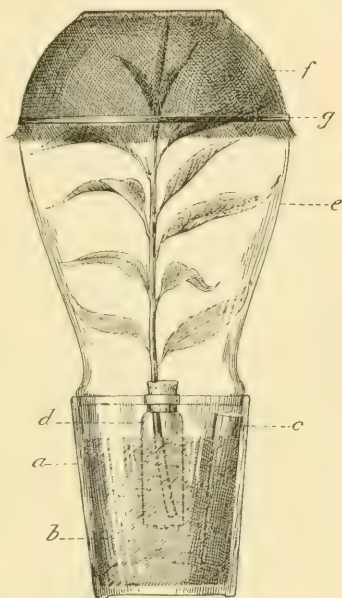


FIG. 23.—Cage used in rearing the peach and plum slug: *a*, Tumbler; *b*, sand for pupation of the insects; *c*, tube, open at both ends, for moistening sand from bottom; *d*, vial of water for keeping food fresh; *e*, lantern chimney; *f*, cheesecloth cover; *g*, rubber band. Reduced. (Original.)

puddling the surface. Over this was placed a lantern chimney upside down, the top of the chimney just fitting inside the top of the tumbler. A piece of cheesecloth over the open end of the chimney completed the cage.

About two days after hatching the larvæ were transferred to fresh foliage, and thereafter the foliage was changed as often as necessary. Even with this care only a small percentage of the individuals confined were carried through to maturity, and many of the lots were complete failures. However, a great deal of information concerning the life history and habits of the species was obtained.

LIFE HISTORY.

THE ADULT.

The adult sawflies (see fig. 24, *g*) are very active little insects. If one is observed on a leaf it will be seen to run back and forth across the leaf on the upper side, apparently peering over the edge, occasionally stopping for a moment at one of the nectaries at the base of the leaf and sipping the nectar. This sort of food seems to constitute their diet, as, in addition to visiting the peach-leaf nectaries, they were also observed visiting near-by cotton plants for nectar and honeydew, and one was seen on Japanese quince.

The adults first appear in the spring, in the latitude of Tallulah, about the 1st of April and can be found at any time thereafter until cold weather in the fall. Morgan (*loc. cit.*) observed that the adults appeared most abundantly toward the end of each month, and considered this as an indication of the different broods. This tendency was not noticed at Tallulah. Moreover, eggs and larvæ of all sizes could be observed at the same time, and it hardly appears that there would be any such distinctness of broods. During the year there are probably seven generations of the earliest individuals in the latitude of Tallulah, but owing to the confusion resulting from the overlapping of generations, it is impossible to determine the exact number. Six of the seven are summer generations and the seventh is the hibernating generation. Of the latest individuals of each generation there are probably not more than three or four summer broods.

OVIPOSITION.

The act of oviposition was not observed, but from the position of the egg it would seem that the female inserts the ovipositor in the leaf from the upper side, usually close to the midrib or one of the larger veins, and by moving it about from side to side separates the lower epidermis from the other leaf tissues in a space about one and one-half millimeters in diameter and more or less circular in outline. In

the cavity thus formed the egg is placed. (See fig. 24, *a*.) The probability that this is the method of oviposition is supported by the fact that the adult was never observed on the underside of the leaf, but always on the upper side. Moreover, the pear slug, which is closely related to this species, performs the same operation from the underside of the leaf, depositing the egg just beneath the upper epidermis. Morgan (*loc. cit.*) mistook the portion of the lower epidermis, which forms the floor of the nidus, for a "mucilaginous secretion which extends beyond the real egg and produces a much larger surface for attachment." That this idea was erroneous can be easily seen by dissecting the nidus.

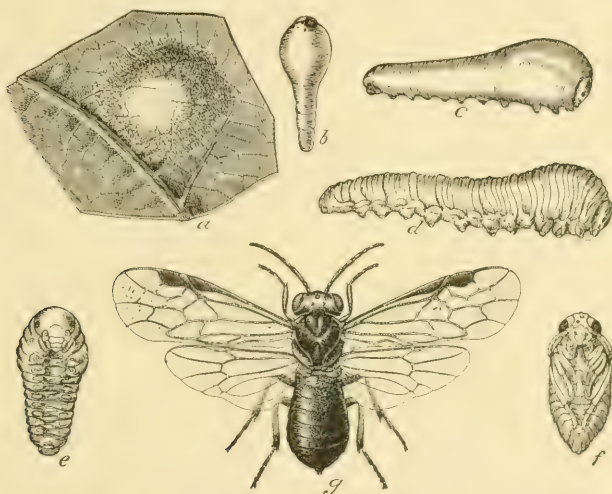


FIG. 24.—Developmental stages of peach and plum slug: *a*, Egg *in situ*; *b*, newly hatched larva; *c*, larva nearly full grown; *d*, larva after last molt, ready to enter ground for pupation; *e*, prepupa; *f*, pupa; *g*, adult. All much enlarged. (Original.)

In selecting a leaf for oviposition the female usually chooses one some distance back from the terminal bud but one which is still tender. The fresh terminal leaves and the oldest tough ones seem to be avoided, although rather tough leaves are preferred to the newest growth.

The number of eggs in a single leaf may vary from 1 to 25. It seems likely that a female, after selecting a suitable leaf, may deposit many eggs in it. This conclusion is strengthened by the fact that on April 9, within 9 days of the first appearance of the adults, and when infested leaves were very scattered, one leaf was found which contained 25 eggs.

In some leaves the location of each egg is indicated on the upper side by a small, reddish-purple spot.

THE EGG.

The egg is transparent white, ovoid, slightly more than one-half a millimeter in its longest diameter, with one side slightly more rounded than the other as in the egg of the pear slug. In eggs in which incubation has continued for some time the developing larva can be easily distinguished.

The incubation period of 74 eggs was determined (see Table I), and it varied from 4 to 6 days, with an average of 4.9 days.

TABLE I.—*Incubation period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of oviposition.	Date of hatching.	Number of individuals.	Incubation period.
				<i>Days.</i>
I3.....	Apr. 14	Apr. 18	1	4.0
I7.....	Apr. 13	do.....	1	5.0
I10.....	Aug. 10	Aug. 14	6	4.0
I11.....	Aug. 11	Aug. 16	3	5.0
I12.....	do.....	do.....	3	5.0
I13.....	Aug. 12	do.....	1	4.0
		Aug. 17	2	5.0
I14.....	do.....	Aug. 16	1	4.0
		Aug. 17	1	5.0
I15.....	Aug. 14	Aug. 19	22	5.0
I16.....	do.....	do.....	29	5.0
I17.....	Aug. 21	Aug. 27	4	6.0
Total and average.....			74	4.9

THE LARVA.

As is the case with the pear slug, the larva in escaping from the egg cuts a crescent-shaped slit in the wall of its cell. When first hatched (fig. 24, *b*) it is creamy white with the head slightly darker and the eyes and mouth parts brown, and lacks the slimy covering. It has, in addition to the 6 true legs, 7 pairs of prolegs. It begins to feed almost immediately, becoming quickly coated with the secretion, and within half an hour a line of green appears down its whole length, due to the food in the alimentary canal.

The first damage by the larva consists in very small pinholes eaten into the leaf from the underside, all of the tissue being removed except the upper epidermis. As the larva grows and its jaws become stronger the size of the eaten patches increases until they become large blotches. The upper epidermis is, however, never eaten.

The larva grows rapidly (see fig. 24, *c*), molting four times during its growth. The first instar is from less than 2 to 4 days in duration, averaging about 2 days. The second and third instars are of nearly like duration, and the fourth about 3 days in length, the total feeding period being about 9 or 10 days in duration in warm weather. Two individuals were recorded in which the feeding period lasted for 22 days, but these were from a lot which was under observation during

the cold weather of April, and represent the result of abnormal conditions.

Unlike its congener, the pear slug, the larva does not eat its exuvium.

The escape from the exuvium is made through an opening at the head end, the larva simply crawling out of its old skin and leaving it as a narrow line of slime on the surface of the leaf.

Immediately after molting the larvæ very frequently wander away from the leaf on which they have been feeding to another, sometimes 2 or 3 feet distant.

During the first four instars the larva is of a peculiar sluglike appearance, swollen in front and covered with the slimy secretion which hides the segmentation of its body. The head is pale brown and the eye spots darker. The body is translucent and the course of the alimentary canal can be traced by the green food within. On molting for the fourth time, however, it loses its slimy coating and appears as an opaque, yellowish, caterpillar-like larva (fig. 24, *d*), in which the segmentation can be distinctly seen. It is from five-sixteenths to three-eighths of an inch in length.

During the last molt the larva deposits several pellets of excrement within the exuvium.

Tables II to V show the data obtained on the duration of the different larval stages, and Table VI gives the data for the total feeding period.

TABLE II.—*First larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of hatching.	Date of first molt.	Number of individuals.	First larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
II0.....	Aug. 14	Aug. 15	6	1.0
II1.....	Aug. 16	Aug. 17	3	1.0
II2.....	do.....	Aug. 18	3	2.0
II3.....	Sept. 21	Sept. 24	2	3.0
II2.....	Apr. 9	Apr. 11	10	2.0
II6.....	Apr. 13	Apr. 15	5	2.0
II23.....	Aug. 25	Aug. 27	4	2.0
II31.....	Sept. 20	Sept. 24	1	4.0
Total and average.....			34	1.9

TABLE III.—*Second larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of first molt.	Date of second molt.	Number of individuals.	Second larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
II3.....	Sept. 24	Sept. 26	2	2.0
II23.....	Aug. 27	Aug. 29	5	2.0
II29.....	Sept. 20	Sept. 23	7	3.0
	Sept. 21	do.....	20	2.0
II31.....	Sept. 24	Sept. 26	1	2.0
Total and average.....			35	2.2

TABLE IV.—*Third larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of second molt.	Date of third molt.	Number of individuals.	Third larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
I23.....	Sept. 26	Sept. 28	2	2.0
II23.....	Aug. 29	Aug. 31	1	2.0
II27.....	Sept. 23	Sept. 25	5	2.0
II29.....	do.....	Sept. 26	4	3.0
II31.....	Sept. 26	Sept. 28	16	2.0
			1	2.0
Total and average.....			29	2.1

TABLE V.—*Fourth larval period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of third molt.	Date of fourth molt.	Number of individuals.	Fourth larval period.
				<i>Days.</i>
II10.....	Aug. 20	Aug. 23	1	3.0
II12.....	Aug. 22	Aug. 25	2	3.0
I23.....	Sept. 28	Oct. 1	1	3.0
		Oct. 2	1	4.0
II24.....	Aug. 29	Aug. 31	3	2.0
II27.....	Sept. 25	Sept. 27	1	1.5
	Sept. 26	Sept. 28	1	2.5
		Sept. 29	1	3.5
		Sept. 30	3	4.5
		Oct. 1	2	5.5
II29.....	Sept. 25	Sept. 27	14	2.0
		Sept. 28	1	3.0
II31.....	Sept. 28	Oct. 1	1	3.0
Total and average.....			32	2.8

TABLE VI.—*Total feeding period of the peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La., 1910.*

Lot No.	Date of hatching.	Date of fourth molt.	Number of individuals.	Total feeding period.
				<i>Days.</i>
II10.....	Aug. 14	Aug. 23	1	9.0
II12.....	Aug. 16	Aug. 25	2	9.0
I23.....	Sept. 21	Oct. 1	3	10.0
		Oct. 2	4	11.0
II14.....	Apr. 11	May 3	2	¹ 22.0
II27.....	Sept. 19	Sept. 27	1	8.0
		Sept. 28	1	9.0
		Sept. 29	1	10.0
		Sept. 30	3	11.0
		Oct. 1	2	12.0
II31.....	Sept. 20	do.....	1	11.0
Total and average.....			21	10.3

¹These 2 were developing during unusually cold weather for the season and are omitted from the average.

THE PREPUPA.

After molting for the last time the larva crawls or drops to the ground where it voids the entire contents of the alimentary canal, burrows into the soil from one-half an inch to 3 inches, and constructs

an oval cell somewhat less than one-fourth of an inch long in its greatest diameter. If the cell be opened the larva will be seen to have changed its form considerably. (See fig. 24, *c*.) It is now like a mummy of its former self. It is only about half its original size when it entered the soil, has lost the power of locomotion, and is much shriveled. This stage may be called the prepupa. Marlatt¹ terms the corresponding stage of the pear slug the "contracted larva."

In this form the insect remains for a period, depending on the temperature, of from 5 to 7 days before pupation. Some individuals, as in the case of the pear slug, which seem to be set aside to guard against any catastrophe which might exterminate the species, remain in this condition until long after their fellows have matured, before finishing their life cycle. In one case a living prepupa was found 28 days after the latest adult reared from the same lot of larvæ had emerged. When the work was finished, on October 20, after cold weather had set in, all of the cages were examined. In this examination all of the living stages found were in the prepupal condition. From this it appears that the species must hibernate in this form.

THE PUPA.

(Fig. 24, *f*.)

The pupal period varies in duration from 2 to 4 days, according to the temperature. The data on the total quiescent period (i. e., prepupa plus pupa) is shown in Table VII.

TABLE VII.—*Quiescent period of peach and plum slug, Tallulah, La.*

Lot No.	Date of fourth molt.	Date of emergence.	Number of individuals.	Quiescent period.
				<i>Days.</i>
I10.....	Aug. 23.....	Sept. 1	1	9.0
I12.....	Aug. 25.....	Sept. 3	2	9.0
I14.....	May 3.....	May 12	1	9.0
I112.....	May 22-29.....	May 9	1	13.5
I114.....	July 18.....	July 26	1	8.0
I115.....	July 14-17.....	July 23	1	7.5
		July 24	1	8.5
I116.....	Aug. 12.....	Aug. 19	3	7.0
I117.....	Aug. 14.....	Aug. 22	4	8.0
		Aug. 23	1	9.0
I118.....	Aug. 18.....	Aug. 25	2	7.0
I119.....	Aug. 21.....	Sept. 16	1	² 26.0
I120.....	Aug. 23-25 ..	Sept. 1	2	8.0
		Sept. 3	7	10.0
I121.....	Aug. 26-27 ..	do	2	7.5
		Sept. 4	1	8.5
		Sept. 5	1	9.5
I126.....	Sept. 10-11..	Sept. 20	1	9.5
		Sept. 22	1	11.5
Total and average.....			34	9.0

¹ U. S. Dept. Agr., Div. Ent., Cir. 26, 2d ser., 1897.² This individual held over till the next generation before emerging and is omitted from the average.

TOTAL DEVELOPMENTAL PERIOD.

The total developmental period varies from 20 to 28 or 30 days in the majority of individuals, although in those individuals of each generation which hold over for a time after the normal time of emergence it may be from twice to several times as long as this. This portion of the life history was actually determined for only three individuals. One of these required 22 days and the other two 23 days each. One other was carried through the total period with the exception of the incubation period. Estimating this at 5 days the total developmental period for this individual was 36 days. During the time it was developing, April and May, the weather was very cold and the larval period was 22 days in duration.

EXTENT OF DAMAGE.

So serious a menace is this insect to the peach and plum trees that, in a favorable season, the trees are completely defoliated in August. Morgan figures a plum orchard which was practically defoliated as early as May 22, 1897, when the photograph (Pl. XI) was taken.

In the struggle to repair the damage of the slugs, the trees keep putting out new leaves and forming new wood, which causes them to enter the winter unprepared and less able to withstand freezing. Many of them are thus winter-killed.

Morgan (loc. cit.) quotes a letter from a correspondent in central Louisiana, in which the statement is made that the species "kills an orchard effectually in about two years."

He also makes the following observation: "The attack of this insect upon the American type of plums, such as the Mariana, and the almost entire immunity of the Japanese varieties is very noticeable. Peaches seem worse affected upon the lighter soils of the State."

A heavily infested tree has a very characteristic appearance in the late season, being entirely bare of foliage except at the tips of the twigs, where tufts of new leaves appear.

NATURAL ENEMIES.

Although the nauseous, slimy covering of the larva of this species undoubtedly protects it from many insects and other animals which might otherwise attack it, it is not entirely without natural enemies. Morgan (loc. cit.) mentions two species of mud daubers, which were observed constantly visiting the infested trees and carrying away the larger larvæ, and records the bordered soldier-bug (*Stiretrus pulchella* [= *anchorago* Fab.]) as feeding on them. He also records having observed a hymenopterous parasite, *Trichogramma minutum*, ovipositing in the eggs of the sawfly. The adults of the parasite appeared in 8 days (May 22 to May 30, 1896).

The latter species was not reared by the writer, but on October 5 8 eggs, from which this parasite had probably emerged, were found. Emergence is through a small round hole a little to one side of the center of the egg.

In addition to the above enemies several specimens of a new species of ichneumon fly were reared from the larvæ at Tallulah. This species has been described by Mr. H. L. Viereck, of the Bureau of Entomology, as *Hyperallus caliroæ*.¹ It is shown, much enlarged, in figure 25.

Specimens of this parasite were reared from larvæ which had been confined in the rearing cages for varying periods before entering the ground. The youngest larva, from which a parasite was reared, was removed from the tree on April 7, when it was about one-third grown, that is, 3 or 4 days from the egg. The parasite emerged 35 days later, on May 12. This period is, however, rather longer than the average, since this individual was developing during the cold weather of April and May. All of the other specimens were reared from larvæ which were nearly full grown at the time they were removed from the tree and placed in cages. From larvæ placed in a cage on April 16, 2 parasites were reared on May 17, a period of 31 days.

From larvæ placed in a cage on July 12, 2 parasites were reared on August 10, a period of 29 days. An adult of the host emerged on July 26, 15 days before the parasites appeared.

From larvæ taken on August 10, two parasites were reared on September 1, a period of 22 days. Three adult sawflies emerged on August 19, 13 days before the parasites.

From larvæ confined in a cage on August 12, one parasite was reared on September 3 (period, 22 days), one on September 4 (period, 23 days), and one on September 7 (period, 26 days). Adult sawflies were reared from this lot on August 20, 22, and 23, an average of 12.5 days before the first parasite, 13.5 days before the second, and 16.5 days before the last parasite.

From larvæ removed from the tree on August 19, two parasites were reared on September 18, a period of 30 days. The only adult sawfly reared from this lot was one which evidently remained over time as a prepupa and emerged September 16, only two days ahead of the parasite.



FIG. 25.—*Hyperallus caliroæ*, a parasite of the peach and plum slug. Much enlarged. (Original.)

¹ Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. 39, p. 737, 1911.

The developmental period of the parasite is somewhat longer normally than that of its host.

The data on the development of the parasite are given in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII.—*Data on rearing of Hyperallus caliroæ.*

Lot No.	Date of confinement of larvæ.	Condition of larvæ when confined.	Date adult sawflies emerged.	Date parasites emerged.	Number of parasites reared.	Period from confinement of larvæ to emergence of parasites.	Period from emergence of sawflies to emergence of parasites.
						Days.	Days.
II1.....	Apr. 7	One-third grown..	None.	May 12	1	35.0	
II10.....	Apr. 16	Nearly full grown..	do....	May 17	2	31.0	
II14.....	July 12	do.....	July 26	Aug. 10	2	29.0	15.0
II16.....	Aug. 10	do.....	Aug. 19	Sept. 1	2	22.0	13.0
II17.....	Aug. 12	do.....	Aug. 20	Sept. 3	1	22.0	12.5
			Aug. 22	Sept. 4	1	23.0	13.5
			Aug. 23	Sept. 7	1	26.0	16.5
II19.....	Aug. 19	do.....	Sept. 16	Sept. 18	2	30.0	2.0
Total and averages.....					12	27.5	14.1

¹ This sawfly was undoubtedly from a prepupa, which held over beyond the normal time of emergence for the brood, and the figure corresponding to it in the last column is omitted from the average.

The parasite enters the ground in the body of the host and develops within the pupal cell of the latter. When it has entirely consumed its host and is full grown, it makes a very thin, brown, parchment-like cocoon within the pupal cell and changes to the pupal stage, emerging later as a light-brown and yellowish wasplike fly.

This parasite is evidently not very abundant, as none was seen about the trees, and only 13 individuals were reared from the several hundred larvæ of the sawfly confined.

. REMEDIES.

Lack of time prevented the writer from making any tests of remedies. Without doubt, however, an arsenical spray, such as arsenate of lead, would very effectively destroy these insects, and this poison is advised when the insects occur in sufficient numbers to warrant treatment. The rapid increase in the spraying of peaches and plums with arsenate of lead in self-boiled lime-sulphur wash for the control of the plum curculio and fungous diseases of the fruit will unquestionably result in keeping the peach and plum slug well reduced in orchards. Its occurrence in injurious numbers is to be looked for largely in small unsprayed home orchards, and the remedial measures indicated should be followed when its presence in undue numbers is noted.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97, Part VI.

L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

NOTES ON THE PEACH BUD MITE,

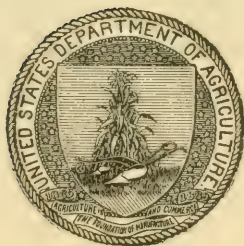
AN ENEMY OF PEACH NURSERY STOCK.

BY

A. L. QUAINANCE,

In Charge of Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

ISSUED FEBRUARY 24, 1912.



WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1912.

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DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECT INVESTIGATIONS.

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CONTENTS.

Introduction.....	Page. 103
History.....	103
Economic importance.....	106
Habits and natural history.....	110
Systematic relationships and other economic species.....	111
Remedial considerations.....	113

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

	Page.
PLATE XII. Injury about two weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite (<i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>).....	104
XIII. Injury several weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite..	108
XIV. Showing condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite.....	110
XV. Showing condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite.....	112
XVI. Injury to buds supposedly due to the peach bud mite.....	112
18871°—Bull. 97—12	III

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

THE PEACH BUD MITE.*(Tarsonemus waitei Banks, MSS.)*

By A. L. QUAINANCE,

In Charge of Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTION.

For the past 15 or 20 years nurserymen in the East have complained of a well-defined trouble of peach nursery stock, resulting from injury to the tender terminal bud of the principal shoot. The injury causes the cessation of further upward growth of the shoot and results in the development from the lateral buds of numerous branches, a condition very objectionable in stock of this class where a single vigorous shoot is desired. There have been several references in literature to this trouble, and entomologists are divided as to the cause, though in most instances a minute mite has been noted as associated with it. The mite in question, however, has not heretofore been examined by a specialist in the Acarina and its systematic position and relationships determined. Mr. Banks has recently been able to do this from material which was obtained from a large nursery in the environs of Philadelphia, and submitted to him during September, 1911.

The mite is now identified as *Tarsonemus waitei* Banks.

As the trouble is an important one, it has appeared appropriate to bring together at this time, so far as is possible, the recorded facts concerning it, with remarks on injuries caused by some other species of *Tarsonemus*.

HISTORY.

Prof. M. B. Waite, of the Department of Agriculture, was undoubtedly first to call attention to this affection, upon which he made careful observations a number of years ago. He was able to determine that a mite was the cause of the trouble, and presented the results of his observations before the Biological Society of Washington at its meeting October 23, 1897, under the title "A New Peach and Plum

Disease." An abstract of these remarks, published in *Science*,¹ is as follows:

Mr. M. B. Waite presented a communication on a new peach and plum disease caused by a species of mite attacking and killing the terminal bud of the very young trees. The resulting loss in the value of the trees was considerable, as many thousand trees would be affected in one nursery. A similar disease prevailed in the Japanese quince.

No further reference to this trouble appears to have been published by Prof. Waite. In *Entomological News*,² under the caption "Preliminary notes upon an important peach-tree pest," Prof. W. G. Johnson states:

In September, 1896, while inspecting the nurseries of Maryland, I found many peach trees dwarfed and stunted, and at first glance attributed it to the black peach aphid (*Aphis prunicola* Kalt.). Later inspection proved conclusively that the trouble was not caused by that insect, but by some other creature. A lot of trees were examined in my laboratory and I discovered a minute mite (Phytoptidæ) working behind and in the buds. In nearly every instance the terminal bud had been destroyed, thus forcing the laterals. These in turn would grow for a short time and were then killed. As a consequence the trees were crooked, stunted, and not salable, being less than 3 feet in height. They were what I have termed dog-legged trees, on account of their very crooked condition.

Prof. Johnson's note led to some comment by other entomologists, and Prof. F. M. Webster, in the *Entomological News*,³ under the title "The new peach mite in Ohio," reports the finding by Mr. C. W. Mally, in the course of nursery inspection work, of the characteristically injured peach trees, though the depredator was not determined. It is stated that in one very extensive nursery the greater portion of a block of 500,000 young peach trees was more or less affected and the presence of the pest was noted also in another nursery in the same general region.

Prof. P. H. Rolfs in a note, "The new peach mite," in *Entomological News*,⁴ called attention to the distribution of a mite which he erroneously thought to be the one referred to by Messrs. Johnson and Webster, namely, a phytoptid, causing a silvering of peach leaves—a mite which was subsequently described by Banks under the name *Phyllocoptes cornutus* from material from the insectary grounds in Washington. A further confusion is evidenced in a note by Mr. Claude Fuller, in *Entomological News*,⁵ in which attention is called to a silvering of the leaves of deciduous fruit trees as noted by him in South Africa and due to the attack of a very small Phytoptus. This is very probably similar if not identical with *Phyllocoptes cornutus*.

Messrs. Webster and Mally refer briefly to the subject in an article on "Insects of the Year in Ohio," read before the Association of

¹ *Science*, new series, vol. 6, Oct. 23, 1897, p. 707.

² *Ent. News*, vol. 8, Dec., 1898, p. 255.

³ *Ent. News*, vol. 9, Jan., 1899, p. 14.

⁴ *Ent. News*, vol. 9, Mar., 1899, p. 73.

⁵ *Ent. News*, vol. 9, Sept., 1899, p. 207.



THE PEACH BUD MITE (*TARSONEMUS WAITEI*).

Injury about two weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite. The tips of shoots have fallen over and are brown and dry. (Original.)

Economic Entomologists at their eleventh annual meeting, Columbus, Ohio, in August, 1899, and published in Bulletin No. 20 of the then Division of Entomology.¹ The injury to peach nursery stock in Ohio was, however, considered to be due to the plant-bug *Lygus pratensis* L., as no evidence was found of the presence of the mite and the extent of injury had been observed to coincide with the abundance of the plant-bug in the nurseries. Also, as stated by nurserymen, the *Lygus* had been frequently observed at work.

Dr. John B. Smith described a similar injury to peach in New Jersey under the caption "Peach Thrips,"² and figures a block of trees badly injured, and also a block of trees which had been sprayed June 9 with undiluted kerosene. In the peach shoots examined by Dr. Smith nothing was found in the dry ones, whereas in every one that was yet moist from 3 to 5 minute, immature thripids were discovered. Dr. Smith's evident conclusion was that the thrips were responsible for the trouble. Also a letter is quoted by Dr. Smith from Prof. W. B. Alwood to the effect that he had worked on the peach thrips since 1891. He was certain injury was due to a thrips and had determined the insect to be *tritici*.

In a further note by Prof. Johnson in Entomological News³ he calls attention to the symptoms of injury by the peach bud mite, and states that the characteristic silverying of the leaves noted by Rolfs and Fuller had not been noticed by him associated with the new mite in Maryland. On the contrary, trees in the nursery rows affected with the peach bud mite were easily distinguished by their dense green foliage and the bunching of twigs.

In a report of the Virginia State entomologist⁴ Mr. J. L. Phillips treats of this affection at some length under the title "Notes on Thrips, Disbudding Insect, or Stop-back of Peach, as Observed in the Nurseries of Virginia." The author states that many unsightly peach trees growing in nurseries in the State had been noted during the few years previous and that injury appeared to be confined almost entirely to nurseries located in the sandy soils of eastern Virginia, where the trees grow very rapidly when given proper care. Thrips were not observed by Mr. Phillips in sufficient quantity nor in position to fix the responsibility for the disease. On the other hand, mites were found to be very plentiful in the tips of the injured trees in a number of instances, and the conviction was expressed that the trouble was due to them. Experimental evidence on this point was obtained by placing around uninjured seedlings in pots the tops of seedlings showing the affection, with the result that the

¹ Bul. 20, n. s., Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agr., p. 72, 1899.

² Twelfth Ann. Rept. N. J. Agr. Coll. Exp. Sta., 1899 (1900), p. 427.

³ Ent. News, vol. 10, May, 1900, p. 471.

⁴ Fifth Rept. Va. State Ent. and Path., pp. 50-61, 1904-05.

uninjured seedlings soon became injured in the same way, yet no thrips were observed on these plants.

ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE.

Concerning losses in Maryland, Mr. Johnson, in the *Entomological News*,¹ states that over 125,000 trees were rendered worthless during 1896 and 1897; and, writing in 1900,² he affirms that the injury still continues about as previously reported, causing dwarfed, crooked, and unsalable trees, and adds:

The extent of the damage, however, this year is not so great as last, as the mite did not appear until after the young trees had made from 2 to 3 feet of growth, while last season the most injury was done when the trees were from 10 inches to 1 foot in height. As a result, a much larger proportion of trees this season are salable. The mites are still active and ruining terminals in many places. On the 9th instant I found eggs of this species behind injured buds in the cavities occupied.

Dr. John B. Smith states (*loc. cit.*) in reference to New Jersey that in almost all of the nurseries which he visited during 1899, a large percentage of the trees showed this affection, and, as already noted, Prof. W. B. Alwood in a letter to Dr. Smith also refers to the prevalence of the trouble in Virginia, as noted by him since 1891.

Concerning the extent of injury in Virginia Mr. Phillips states (*loc. cit.*, p. 52):

No peach trees had formerly been grown in the soil where these observations were made prior to 1903. In that year a large block of peach was grown on one section of the farm, about 400 yards distant from the block under discussion.

The plants grew very rapidly at this place, and were from 1½ to 2 feet high on the 17th of May, at the time this examination was made. In the 8,500 plants examined the injury varied from 10 to 20 per cent, depending upon the local conditions. It was much worse in the slight depressions where water stood for a while after heavy rains.

At this time (May 17), however, the injury had just begun to show plainly. Later in the season it was found that not more than 20 to 30 per cent of the trees had escaped injury in many sections of the field. Less than 20 per cent of the trees were injured in some sections which were located mainly at points where the drainage was good.

A large block of seedling peach, standing about one-half to three-fourths of a mile from the budded stock, and just across the fence from the land that grew peach the year before, was examined June 22. In the section of seedlings nearest to land that stood in peach the previous year (just across the fence) 28 per cent of the plants had been attacked at this date. At another point, about 300 feet from the land that was in peach the previous year, but on a slight knoll where the soil was a little drier, only 14 per cent of the plants were attacked; but in a lower place, about 900 feet distant, 30 per cent of the plants were injured.

At this date (June 22) about 80 per cent of the budded peach had been injured by this trouble in many sections of the field, a much larger percentage than was injured in the seedlings; but as the seedlings were grown and budded on the land the previous year, it is but natural to suppose the injury would be worse in the budded stock.

¹ *Ent. News*, vol. 8, Dec., 1898, p. 225.

² *Ent. News*, vol. 10, May, 1900, p. 471.

Data in regard to height at which injury occurred on the trees.

Number of trees in row.	Number uninjured.	Number injured within 2½ feet of the ground.	Number injured between 2½ and 4 feet above the ground.	Number injured above 4 feet from ground.
182	25	25	41	21
43	9	5	1 29	-----
119	64	9	34	12
161	109	6	26	20
225	180	13	24	8
194	123	9	39	23
176	94	14	39	29

¹ In this case no distinction was made between those injured at this height and those injured at above 4 feet from the ground.

When the writer examined the nursery, on May 17, quite a number of the trees had already been injured, and the indications are that it began about May 12. The injury occurred at an almost uniform height on the trees for three periods: First, from 1 to 2 feet high, about May 12; second, from 2½ to 3½ feet high, about June 12; third, about 4 feet high. The percentage of trees injured increased with each period, indicating that there must have been several successive broods of the form causing the trouble.

The dividing line between the number injured at 2½ to 4 and above 4 feet was not gauged properly in the latter part of the table; hence the figures in the first line should be considered as much more nearly correct than the others.

Occasional complaints concerning this "stop-back" disease have been received by the Bureau of Entomology during the past several years. Specimens of injured peach trees from a nursery company near York, Pa., were received in 1905, and the damage done was stated to be heavy. During the spring of 1906 a Delaware nurseryman complained of serious loss to peach stock, estimating for the previous season a loss of about \$2,000. The writer visited this nursery in June of the above year, and found the trouble quite prevalent, though, as stated by the owner, not so serious as the year before. In a large nursery in Maryland during the same year the work of the mite was in evidence, occurring quite generally over a large block of budded trees, though not especially serious.

Complaint of this affliction in a large nursery near Philadelphia was received July 27, 1911, through Prof. H. R. Fulton, State College, Pa., with specimens of injured plants. It was stated that there had been a considerable amount of the trouble that year as well as a slight amount the year previous. Mr. J. F. Zimmer, of the writer's office force, visited this nursery August 24-25, and in conference with the owners it was learned that the injury during the year 1911 was estimated at about \$15,000. This nursery was later visited by the writer and the injury was found to be quite serious, as stated, involving a portion of the large block of budded trees, and a small area of injured trees was found in a seedling block. The mite was found in some numbers working on peach, and a few

examples were noted by Mr. Zimmer on an adjoining block of apple of the Jersey Sweet and Early Harvest varieties. The varieties of peach most injured were Crawford's Late, Mountain Rose, and Old Mixon. The varieties Crosby, Stump the World, and Georgia Bell were least injured. The ground planted had been in wheat in 1909 and was planted to peach for the first time in the spring of 1910. The buds used were obtained partly from a bearing orchard, but largely from nursery trees in an adjacent block, but in which no injury had been noted.

A similar outbreak was also reported as occurring in a near-by nursery.

A prominent nursery company in Ohio, writing of this trouble, states, under date of October 30, 1911:

We have been bothered with the thrips in peach trees for 15 or 20 years. This year and last very bad. Some years very little. This year first time ever bothered much on peach seedlings. If we can get peach buds 3 or 4 feet before this pest begins, we can make very good trees.

A Maryland nursery firm gives their experience as follows, under date of October 24, 1911:

We have had lots of trouble and loss caused by the "setback" on peach seedlings and also on peach buds. In 1910 we saw no signs of it, but this year (1911) it caused us a good deal of extra expense. When the trees are stung by this insect in the terminal bud during the summer and when the trees are about 18 to 24 inches tall, it causes them to stop growing in the top and put out a lot of side or lateral branches, and if not attended to they will be worthless. The past summer we kept a gang of men going over our peach blocks and cutting or heading in the side branches in order to throw the growth to the terminal and make them start a second growth. In this way by constant work we got our trees to start to grow and the most of them finally outgrew the trouble. We knew no other remedy than to cut the side branches back 2 or 3 inches. We notice it is much worse in some places even in the same field than others.

Prof. Waite's careful observations, and those of Messrs. Johnson, Phillips, and others, indicate clearly that the *Tarsonemus waiti* is the cause of the so-called "stop-back" affection of peach nursery stock. It may also be true that injury practically identical in effect on the trees is caused by thrips, as stated by Dr. Smith and Prof. Alwood. Young thrips larvæ, principally *Euthrips tritici*, are very commonly found in the tender growing tips of various kinds of vegetation, and are especially common in peach nursery trees. In blocks of trees infested with the mite, the thrips larvæ have been found by the writer in great abundance, but never, so far as could be determined, killing the tips of the shoots. The writer is inclined to the belief that the injury in Ohio, New Jersey, and Virginia (as shown by Phillips) is due to the *Tarsonemus*, its small size, agility, and habits contributing to its oversight.

Any injury to the growing tip of a peach shoot, as by plant-bugs, would naturally produce a similar effect in causing the cessation of growth and the development of lateral shoots, but the comparative



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

Injury several weeks old to peach shoots by the peach bud mite. Note the swollen condition of the injured shoots and the enlarged foliage. At the injured point is a mass of gum and dirt. Enlarged about 2 diameters. (Original.)

scarcity of such insects in injured blocks in the territory under consideration does not warrant their association with the trouble.

During the growing season the mites are to be found here and there on the plants behind the buds, or in cavities and places offering protection, and one or more may usually be found at the injured tip under an adjacent bud or more or less covered by the mass of exuded gum. Injury consists in the puncturing of the tender shoot near the tip, which soon wilts, falls over, and turns brown and dry.

At the injured point gum soon exudes, and the cessation of further growth of the shoot results in its swelling out and in a notable increase in the size of the adjacent leaves, which assume a deep glossy green color. Lateral shoots soon push out, the number and position varying widely, resulting in a crooked or bushy topped tree of but little market value. As stated by one nurseryman, many of the inserted buds which set normally, and were noted to be green and in healthy condition during the fall, winter, and spring, died before starting, or the shoot put out and died soon afterwards. The writer has observed a good deal of this kind of injury, especially where the work of the mites on the trees was later most in evidence, and this injury to the dormant bud may also result from the mites.

The characteristic injury some ten days or two weeks old is shown in Plate XII, somewhat enlarged. It will be noted that the point of injury is adjacent in each case to a leaf, where the mite probably sought protection. The tips of the shoot above the point injured had fallen over and were brown and dry, and in two of the examples the accompanying exudation of gum may be detected.

Some weeks later the injured shoots have the appearance shown in Plate XIII, about twice enlarged. The stem has filled out and there is a considerable mass of blackened gum and dirt on the tip of the injured stem. In the example on the right, a strong lateral shoot has developed. The large, congested leaves are also shown.

On Plates XIV and XV is shown the appearance, in the fall, of trees injured by the mite. As will be seen, the plants, except in one instance, were cut off just below the bud. Most of the specimens show two distinct attacks by the mite, with consequent formation of lateral branches.

As before mentioned, the peach bud mite, in the opinion of one nurseryman—and a careful observer—is responsible for the killing of the bud inserted in the seedling, as it is starting growth in the spring, or after the shoot has pushed out. Plate XVI shows, considerably enlarged, buds injured in this supposed manner.

In some cases the attack of the mite does not cause the death of the shoot, which continues to grow, but at the injured place there develops a characteristic rusty scar of variable size and shape, which in vigorous growing trees may become a long, rusty streak, extending

between the nodes. Smaller rusty scars or pits are often found under the buds occupied by the mites and undoubtedly result from the puncturing of the tender tissue.

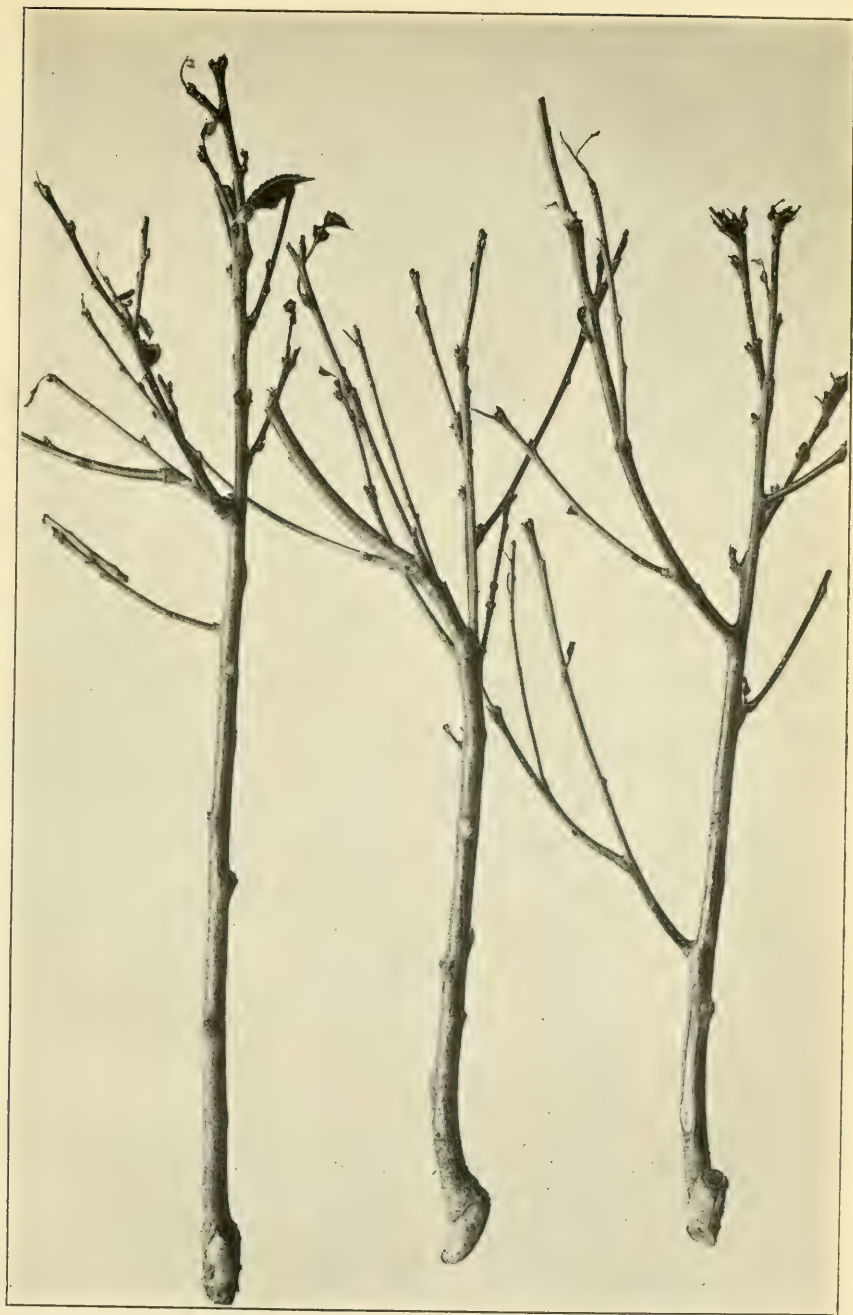
The mite infests both seedlings and budded trees and is also common in orchards. The injury to seedlings, which as a rule are budded below the point from which the laterals in most cases develop, is much less important than the injury to the budded stock the season following. Injury in orchards has not thus far been observed to be serious, but the mites are usually common and might be readily introduced in nurseries with budding-wood.

HABITS AND NATURAL HISTORY.

But few observations have been made on the habits of the peach bud mite and further information is very desirable for a proper application of control measures. According to Prof. Waite, as detailed to the writer in conversation, the mites hibernate on the plants behind the bud scales. It is especially important to know if the mite winters exclusively on the dormant nursery trees and if it has other important food plants than the peach. The writer examined in March, 1906, a lot of dormant peach stock from an infested nursery, including several trees badly injured, and only one mite was found hidden in a small cavity in the stem near the base of the tree. December 15, 1911, a lot of 36 1-year peach trees badly injured by the mite were carefully examined, and while two specimens of a gamasid mite were found, no specimens of the peach bud mite were discovered.

The mites appear on the trees quite early in the spring, and by the time the shoots are 18 or 20 inches in height, their injury is much in evidence. As stated by Mr. Phillips for tidewater Virginia, the injury has begun to show plainly by May 17, at which time 10 to 20 per cent of the trees already showed more or less symptoms of attack. Mr. Phillips believed that the injury began as early as May 12, and presents a table showing the proportion of trees injured at different heights from the ground, as already quoted (p. 107). In a Delaware nursery, injury was very common by June 6, the attack beginning apparently two or three weeks earlier. Dr. Smith, speaking of thrips injury in New Jersey, states that it was quite common by June 8, at which date almost 50 per cent of the shoots in nurseries examined had the terminals killed. It is evident, therefore, that the mite begins operations during the latter part of May. Mr. Phillips's observations indicate three different periods of principal injury, which he considers mark as many generations of the mite.

Breeding probably occurs largely on the trees. Mr. Johnson records finding eggs of the mite in cavities behind the injured buds. The writer on different occasions has found the mites of various sizes behind buds, indicating that they had there developed.



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

The condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite. (Original.)

SYSTEMATIC RELATIONSHIPS AND OTHER ECONOMIC SPECIES.

According to Banks¹ the family Tarsonemidæ is a small one of much biological and economic importance. There are two subfamilies, Pediculoidinæ and Tarsoneminæ. These soft-bodied mites resemble also the Tyroglyphidæ, though the females differ from these and all other mites in the presence between the legs (pairs 1 and 2) of a prominent clavate organ of uncertain use. Concerning the systematic position of the family there has been considerable doubt among the students of the Acarina and it has not long held any one position. It has been associated with the Oribatidæ and the Cheyletidæ, and, according to Berlese, the family constitutes one of the principal groups of the order.

The subfamily Tarsoneminæ includes but two genera, the species differing from those of the other subfamily in that the hind leg of the female ends in a long hair. The two genera, Disparipes and Tarsonemus, are represented by a considerable number of species, and many species of Tarsonemus are of distinct economic importance. *Tarsonemus oryzae* Targ.-Toz. infests the culms of the rice plant in Italy,² and produces the malady described by Negri under the name "bianchella" (bleaching), which is particularly characterized by the presence of numerous very fine threads or fibers thought to be produced by this acarid; this thread-spinning habit is not found, apparently, associated with any other species of the genus thus far known.

An affection of oats in France and Germany caused by *Tarsonemus spirifex* March. has recently been well treated by Dr. Paul Marchal and others.³ The mites inhabit the sheath surrounding the head or panicle of the oat plant, preventing proper development, and causing the stem to assume a distorted spiral shape, which may push out along the side. In other cases the distorted stem is held inclosed in the sheath, which becomes fusiform, and these plants are called "avoines en cigares." The mites appear early in June and the characteristic spirals during the second fortnight of the same month; all stages, as the egg, larva; and both sexes of the adult being found together on the plant. It is not known how this mite passes the winter. Marchal suggests the possibility that it may hibernate in a very resistant condition in the soil, though evidence to the contrary is cited as obtained by M. Guille, who considers it probable that the mites migrate in the fall to adjacent wild grasses. The mite also lives in wheat, barley, and rye, though oats is the preferred food. Excessive dry weather is regarded as favorable to its development.

¹ Proc. U. S. Nat. Museum, vol. 28, p. 74, 1893.

² La malattia della bianchella del riso coltivato. Casale, 1873.

³ L'Acarirose des avoines. Annales de l'Institut National Agronomique, 2d ser., tome 6, fasc. 1er, 1901.

Tarsonemus ananas Tryon was determined by Tryon to be the primary cause of a disease of pineapples in southern Queensland.¹ The mite infests the pineapple plant quite generally, as the stem of the fruit, deep between the bases of the leafy bracts, forming the tuft at top of plant, and especially the fruitlets, where, by its puncturing with its styliform mandibles at the base of the cavity containing the essential organs, an injury is produced which may be followed by the invasion of a fungus, resulting in the so-called "fruitlet core rot." The mites are never very abundant and shun the light, inhabiting principally the deeper recesses of the fruit.

Two species of *Tarsonemus* have been reported by Mr. A. D. Michael as injuring sugar cane in Barbados.² One species, which he calls *Tarsonemus bancrofti* Michael, also occurs in sugar cane in Queensland. The mites were exceedingly abundant in all stages on the canes observed by Mr. Michael, living principally under the leaf sheaths. They are thought to be present in other sugar-producing countries, but have thus far escaped notice. The infestation of cane by mites, according to Mr. Bovell, superintendent of Dodds Botanical Garden, reduces the annual yield of sugar from 3 tons to 1 ton per acre.

Another mite, *Tarsonemus culmicolus* Reuter, produces a silver-top disease of grasses in Finland,³ occurring especially on *Phleum pratense*, *Agropyron repens*, and *Festuca rubra*. This species has been well treated by Dr. Enzo Reuter. The mites are present on the grasses from early spring to fall, infesting the interior of the leaf-sheath, living on the tender stem above the highest node. While no deformity results, the extraction of the juice occasions the drying up and death of the inflorescence, which remains filiform and turns white.

Tarsonemus latus Banks was found by Banks in some small mango plants in one of the department greenhouses in Washington.⁴ Some plants had stopped growth, and the mites occurred principally on the swollen and partially discolored tips.

Tarsonemus pallidus Banks was found on a chrysanthemum in a greenhouse near Jamaica Plain, N. Y.⁵

There are numerous other species, but those cited will serve to show the importance from an economic standpoint of this group of small creatures, and adds additional evidence, by reason of its relationship, that our peach bud mite is responsible for the injury to peach herein described.

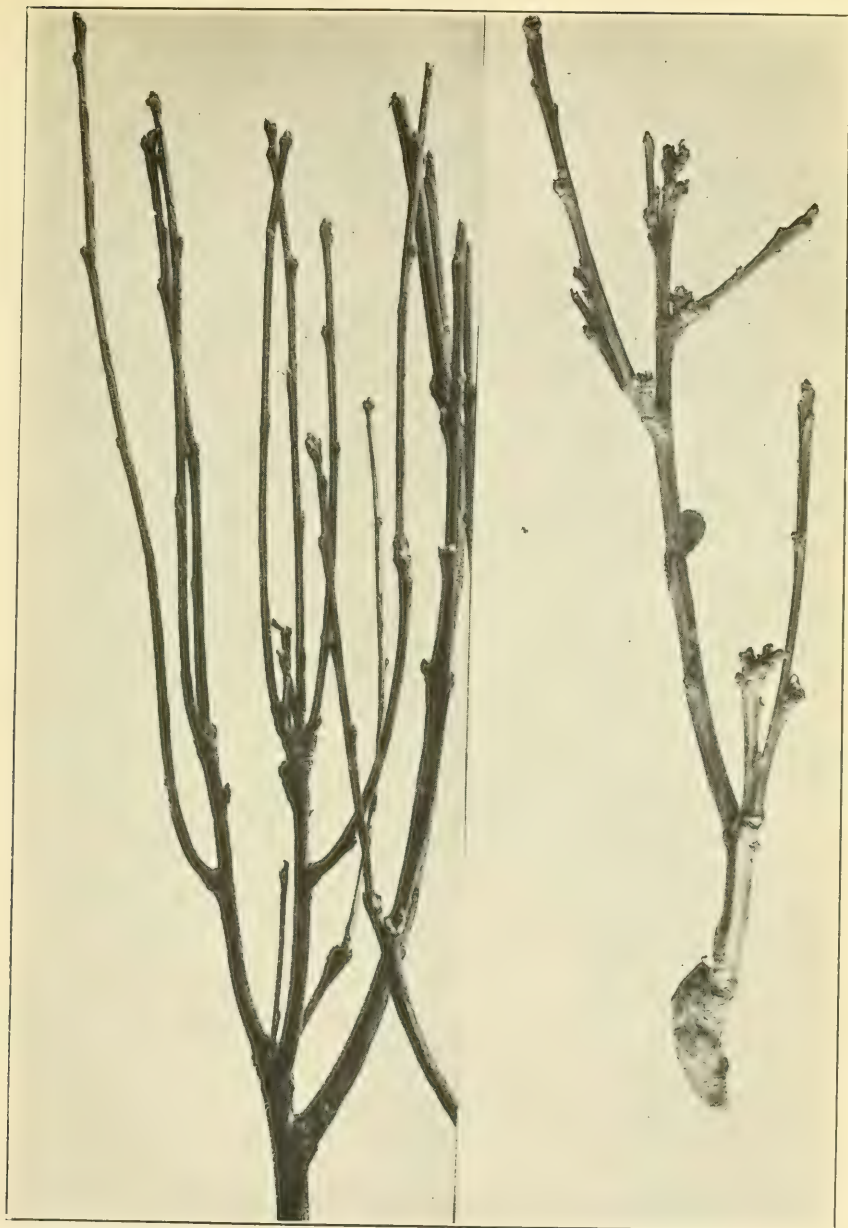
¹ Fruitlet core rot of pineapples. Queensland Agr. Journ., 1898, p. 453.

² Report on diseased sugar cane from Barbados, etc. Bull. Royal Gardens, Kew, 1890, p. 85.

³ Über die Weissähigkeit der Wiesengräser in Finland. Acta Soc. pro Fauna et Flora Fennica, vol. 19, No. 1, 1900, p. 77.

⁴ Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., vol. 12, 1904, p. 55.

⁵ Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., vol. 4, 1898, p. 294.



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

The condition of peach nursery trees in the fall, due to injury by the peach bud mite. The specimen on the right is not over 18 inches high, the specimen on the left shows two distinct periods of attack. (Original.)



THE PEACH BUD MITE.

Injury to buds supposedly due to peach bud mite. These dormant buds were green all winter and were killed in the spring as growth commenced. Enlarged. (Original.)

REMEDIAL CONSIDERATIONS.

There is but little information available bearing on the control of the peach bud mite. Prof. Waite, in conversation, informed the writer that when the trouble was present several years ago in his nurseries, he was able to prevent injury by thoroughly spraying, during the dormant season, the trees subject to injury with lime-sulphur wash. It was not learned, however, whether trees were left untreated for purposes of comparison. The known effectiveness of sulphur, dry or in soluble compounds, against mites in general is ground for the belief that sulphur sprays would be effective in this case. It is uncertain, however, whether the mites winter exclusively on the peach nursery stock. The value of dormant treatments would depend upon the extent to which the mites hibernate on the trees. There is some evidence that they hibernate elsewhere. In the instance of serious injury in the Delaware nursery, earlier mentioned, all of the block of peach stock, save one row, was sprayed with lime-sulphur wash during the spring of 1906 (dormant buds). Examinations by the writer during the following summer did not show any difference between the sprayed and unsprayed trees, and the infestation was uniformly quite prevalent.

It has been the practice for some years of one large nursery firm to spray blocks of their peach trees during the dormant period with a miscible oil used at full winter strength. Notwithstanding this practice the trees have been seriously injured by the mite, and in one large block thus sprayed during the dormant period of the spring of 1910 the mite was especially prevalent in one portion during the summer of 1911. These results suggest that the mites also winter in other places than on the peach trees.

In the experience of Mr. Phillips, already quoted, (p. 106), considerable benefit resulted from prompt attention to pruning the injured plants, so as to correct the trouble as much as possible, by the selection and forcing of one of the best lateral shoots. He treats this question at some length (*loc. cit.*) and his table of results from pruning tests is herewith quoted:

Data in regard to pruning peach trees in the nursery affected by "stop-back."

Varieties.	Total number of trees in row.	Number injured by May 18.	Number pruned May 18.	Number of crooked trees Aug. 15.	Number of injured trees that grew up straight.	Percentage of pruned trees that grew up straight.
Wonderful.....	1,259	147	147	46	101	68
Champion.....	1,010	150	150	40	110	73
do.....	1,130	133	Check.	¹ 119		
(?).....	160	² 25	² 25	3	22	88

¹ Some time after this row was decided upon as a check, it was learned that one of the laborers had pinched a number of trees at one end. This accounts for there being fewer crooked trees than had been injured May 18.

² June 22.

In this article Mr. Phillips concludes:

We were not able to give enough time to the work to have the trees pruned more than once, but the success of this pruning indicates that the trouble can be prevented almost entirely by judicious pruning. Indiscriminate pruning, by an ordinary laborer, is not, however, likely to produce beneficial results.

This work costs but very little in excess of the regular pruning, as both can be done at the same time.

The first pruning should be done about the middle of June.

In order to make it entirely effective, a second pruning should be given a few weeks after the first.

Where this attack occurs in peach trees that are not growing rapidly, the pruning should be supplemented by a dressing of nitrate of soda to promote growth.

Good drainage will likely prevent the trouble in a large measure.

As stated on page 108, pruning out the laterals from the injured trees, thus forcing one of the more terminal shoots, was followed the past season by a Maryland nursery company with good results. The pruning method would appear to be of considerable benefit, and to a large extent this special work may be combined with the usual necessary prunings required in growing trees of this kind. In locations where the mites are likely to be troublesome a lookout should be kept for their injury to the plants in the spring. The tips of the lateral shoots should be pinched off, except the first strong lateral below the injured point, which it is desired to force ahead as much as possible.

A thorough application of a suitable spray to the infested trees, especially during the period of attack in late spring, should be of decided value, though the writer knows of no actual work of this kind having been done. At this time the mites are on the trees in numbers, and by thorough spraying many of them should be killed. A contact spray such as kerosene emulsion or whale-oil-soap solution should be effective, and especially the self-boiled lime-sulphur wash. Most observers agree that the mite is more prevalent on trees on low situations. While the writer has noted exceptions to this condition, it seems for the most part to be true. Planting trees on higher situations where the soil is well drained would perhaps be advantageous in localities where the mite has come to be quite troublesome.

THIS PUBLICATION may be procured from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office Washington, D. C., at 10 cents per copy.



U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF ENTOMOLOGY—BULLETIN No. 97, Part VII.
L. O. HOWARD, Entomologist and Chief of Bureau.

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS
AND INSECTICIDES.

THE GRAPE SCALE.

BY

JAMES F. ZIMMER,
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ISSUED MAY 4, 1912.



221696

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1912.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction.....	115
Distribution and food plants.....	115
Habits and natural history.....	116
Description.....	117
Scale of female.....	117
Scale of male.....	117
Adult female.....	117
Winged male.....	118
Parasites.....	118
Species previously recorded.....	118
Species reared by the writer.....	119
Preventives and remedies.....	120
Lime-sulphur wash.....	120
Self-boiled lime-sulphur wash.....	120
Other sprays.....	121
When to spray.....	121
Summer spraying.....	121
Winter spraying.....	121
Bibliography.....	122

ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.	Page.
• PLATE XVII. Grape canes showing infestation by the grape scale, <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
XVIII. The grape scale. Fig. 1.—Showing how the young scales settle, more or less, in longitudinal rows. Fig. 2.—Full-grown male and female scales; also many parasitized individuals. Fig. 3.—Pygidium of adult female, showing circumgenital glands and orifice, lobes, and spines.....	116
XIX. The grape scale. Fig. 1.—Adult winged male. Fig. 2.—Genitalia of male. Fig. 3.—Antenna of male. Fig. 4.—Serrations on costal vein. Fig. 5.—Tarsus and claw of male.....	118

TEXT FIGURES.

FIG. 26. The grape scale, <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i> : Newly hatched larva and details	117
27. Cage used in rearing parasites of the grape scale	119

PAPERS ON DECIDUOUS FRUIT INSECTS AND INSECTICIDES.

THE GRAPE SCALE.*(Aspidiotus [Diaspidiotus] uræ Comst.)*

By JAMES F. ZIMMER,

Entomological Assistant, Deciduous Fruit Insect Investigations.

INTRODUCTION.

The grape scale, *Aspidiotus (Diaspidiotus) uræ* Comstock, has been reported as more or less destructive to grapevines during the last three decades. The insect occurs, to a very limited extent, on certain forest and shade trees, though the records do not show serious injury to plants other than the grape.

Apparently the earliest record of this species is to be found in the notes of the Bureau of Entomology. Under date of November 12, 1875, from St. Louis, Mo., Mr. Theodore Pergande forwarded specimens of the grape scale to the Entomologist of the Department of Agriculture. This insect was later found at Vevay, Ind., as stated by Prof. F. M. Webster,¹ by Mr. C. G. Boerner, though no date is given. This material was used by Prof. Comstock in the preparation of the original description of the species which appeared in the Report of the Commissioner of Agriculture for the year 1880, pages 309-310.

DISTRIBUTION AND FOOD PLANTS.

In addition to the records above cited, the grape scale was received from Miss Mary E. Murtfeldt, Kirkwood, Mo., in 1888, and it was stated that grape canes in that vicinity were very badly infested with the insect. Two years later specimens of the grape scale were received from Prof. F. M. Webster at Lafayette, Ind., with a similar report as to its occurrence.

In October, 1897, Mr. F. Noack reported the grape scale in vineyards in the vicinity of São Paulo, Brazil, and in January, 1900, the grape scale was reported on sycamore, from Atlanta, Ga., by Mr. W. M. Scott.

This scale was also found on sycamore by Mr. James G. Sanders, at Columbus, Ohio, in 1902, and was reported from Gentry, Ark., on grape by Mr. E. L. Jenne, of this bureau, in 1900. Many other reports

¹ Scale insects: Indiana Horticultural Society, Report for 1896, p. 16.

have been noted and the list of host plants found thus far is as follows: *Ampelopsis* sp., *Carya alba*, *Carya* sp., cultivated grape, *Platanus occidentalis*, *Platanus* sp., European grape (*Vitis vinifera*), and wild grapes (*Vitis* spp.).

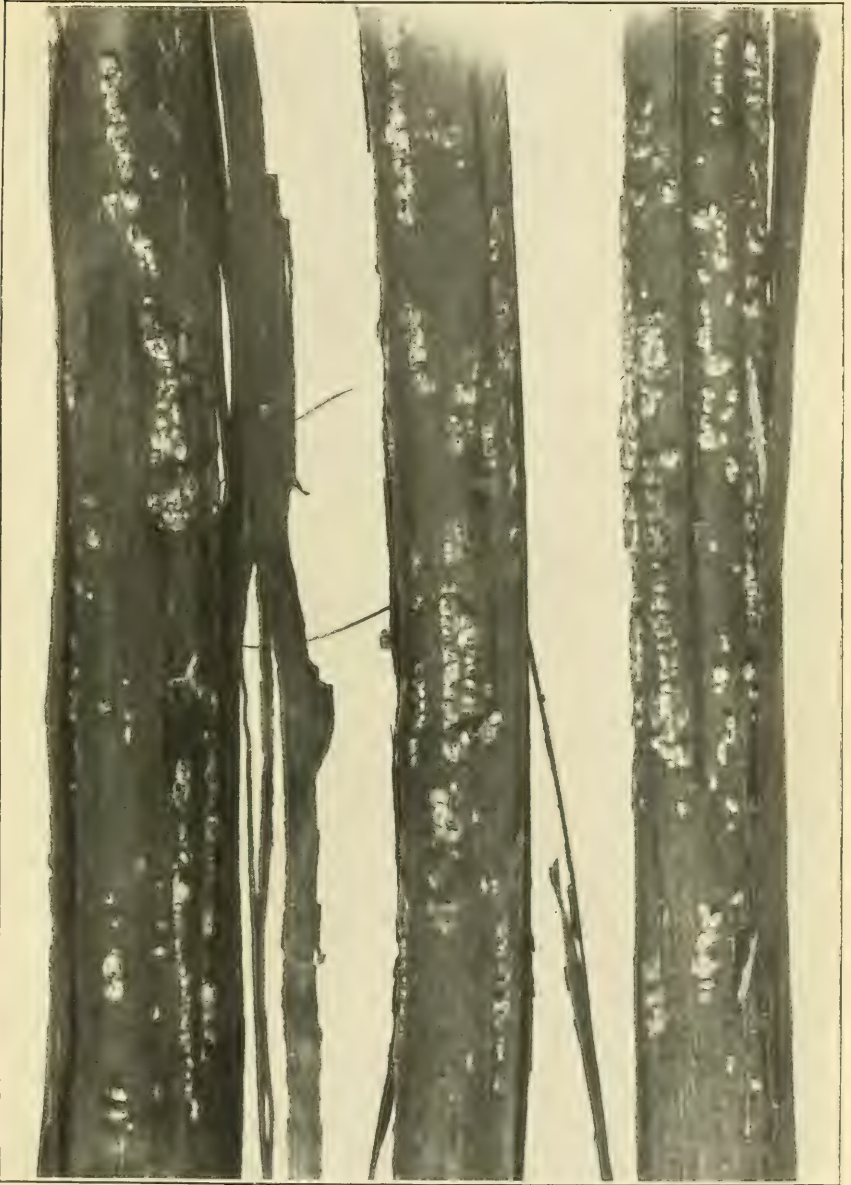
The records do not show that there is variation among the different varieties of grapes as to susceptibility to attack, but it is likely that the stronger-growing sorts would be least injured. So far as known the grape scale is of no economic importance, except on the grape, but it has been the subject of frequent complaint on grapes during the past few years and in certain vineyards in the environs of Washington its injuries have become decidedly important, requiring treatment for the preservation of the vines.

From the above it will be seen that the grape scale is rather widely distributed in the eastern United States, occurring from Florida north to New Jersey and as far west as Missouri. From published records and those in the Bureau of Entomology, it is known to occur in the following States: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. It has also been reported from foreign countries, being listed from many parts of Europe, from Brazil, Jamaica, and the West Indies.

HABITS AND NATURAL HISTORY.

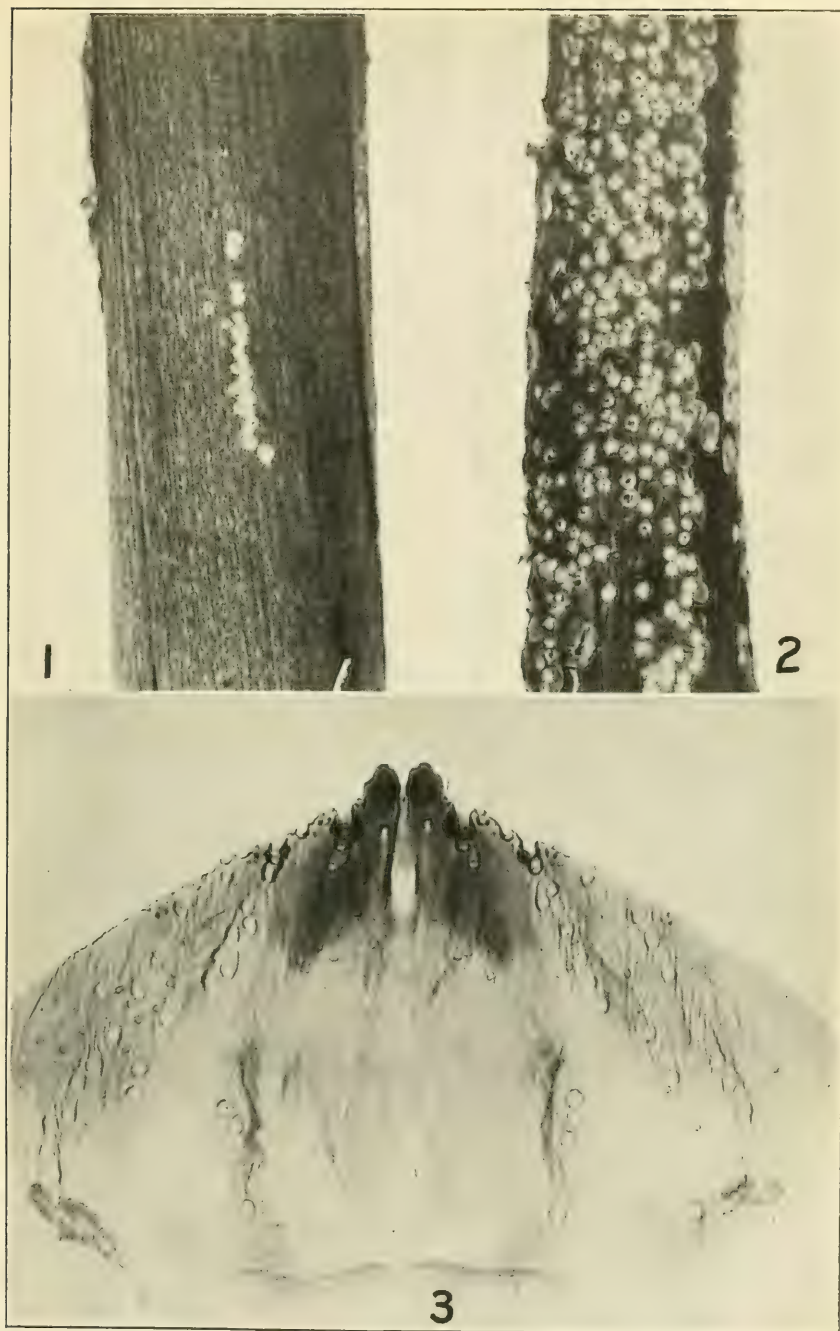
Grapevines, when badly infested with the grape scale, have the appearance of being coated with a profuse, dingy white scurf. (See Pl. XVII.) The scales occur upon the canes, protected by the shreds of the exfoliated bark tissue of the previous season's growth. From observations made, this insect seems to have many habits similar to those of the San Jose scale (*Aspidiotus perniciosus* Comst.). The grape scale, when abundant, very materially retards the development of the vines and always infests the second year's growth. The young "lice" have the peculiar habit of settling in rows. (See Pl. XVIII, fig. 1.) Frequently the canes are so thickly infested that they have the appearance of having been treated with a heavy coat of whitewash. The insect apparently does not spread readily, as it has often been noted that while one vine in a row may be badly infested, not a single scale is to be found on adjacent plants.

The female insect, during the months of May and June, gives birth to from 35 to 50 living young. After a brief active stage of about two days, the young "lice" settle down on the cane and there is a fairly uniform development. During the period of growth from the immature larva to the adult stage, the insect molts or casts its skin twice. As is true with all of the armored scales, the life of this insect, with the exception of the short period of activity of the young,



GRAPE CANES, ENLARGED, SHOWING INFESTATION BY THE GRAPE SCALE, *ASPIDIOTUS* (*DIASPIDIOTUS*) *UVÆ*.

Note how the scales occur in rows on the canes. (Original.)



THE GRAPE SCALE.

Fig. 1.—Showing how the young scales settle, more or less, in longitudinal rows. Fig. 2.—Full-grown male and female scales; also many parasitized individuals. Fig. 3.—Pygidium of adult female, showing circumgenital glands and orifice, lobes, and spines. (Original.)

and an equally brief period of activity of the winged male, is passed under the protection of a waxy covering, closely applied to the host plant. The female is wingless throughout her life. The adult winged male appears in June. The winter is passed by the insects in a nearly full grown condition. Our observations show that there is only a single brood of larvæ each year. It also appears that this species does not deposit eggs, as has been thought, but that the female is viviparous.

Some newly born larvæ (fig. 26) were placed on a grape cane in order to ascertain the length of the active stage. The crawling "lice" were kept under occasional observation and at the end of 24 hours all were still moving, but after 48 hours all lice had settled down and had already begun the excretion of the white waxy covering. The scale formed over the young insect is whitish in color and appears to have two rings on its dorsal surface. The edge of the scale is closely cemented to the bark of the twig.

Many larvæ were examined to ascertain how fully the lobes were developed. When one day old, well-developed median lobes were found to be present.

DESCRIPTION.¹

Scale of female (Pl. XVIII, fig. 2).—Yellowish-brown, slightly lighter than the bark of the vine, diameter 1.1 to 1.7 mm., circular and comparatively flat, exuviae bright yellow, subcentral.

Scale of male (Pl. XVIII, fig. 2).—Elongate, length 0.9 to 1.0 mm., width 0.5 mm., exuviae to one side, slightly darker and more convex than female scale.

Adult female (Pl. XVIII, fig. 3).—From 1 to 1.4 mm. in length, oval. *Anal plate* 0.4 mm. broad at base by 0.23 mm. long. Median lobes prominent, more or less parallel, slightly diverging at tip, notched on each margin, with inner notch fairly prominent and slightly elevated; lateral lobes wanting or rudimentary, as is the case with *ancylus*; two distinct lateral incisions present; paraphyses of first incision conspicuous, inner the largest, pear-shaped; paraphyses of second incision much smaller; plates minute, obscure; spines on dorsal surface strongly developed, one on median lobe, one cephalad of each incision, and one halfway to the penultimate segment, ventral spines smaller and lateral of dorsal spines; anal opening small, circular, about two and one-half lobes length from tip of median lobes; paragenitals, median 0-4, anterior laterals 4-9, posterior laterals 3-7; dorsal pores present in three rows, first con-

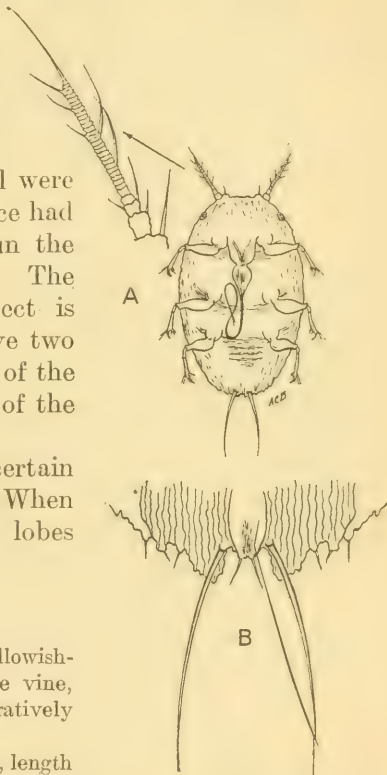


FIG. 26.—The grape scale: Newly hatched larva, ventral view, showing legs; A, antenna; B, anal segments. Much enlarged; A and B more enlarged. (Original.)

¹ Prepared by Mr. E. R. Sasser, of the Bureau of Entomology.

sisting of two at first incision, second of eight at second incision, third of five to eight caudad of fourth spine; median and lateral basal thickenings prominent; apical ventral chitination strongly developed, brown; ventral longitudinal ridges fairly distinct. (See Pl. XVIII, fig. 3.)

Winged male (Pl. XIX).—Appears in June; at least no record of its earlier appearance can be found in literature, and the writer reared no males previous to this date. *Head* 0.06 mm. long, 0.107 mm. wide, about the same color as the thorax, nearly rectangular in shape, broadening somewhat at base. *Eyes* brownish in color, located on the side of head near the front. *Ocelli* two in number, on the upper part of the epicranium, and lighter in color than the compound eyes. Mouth parts apparently absent. *Antennae* about same color as thorax, bearing 10 segments, the basal one being short and nearly globose, others nearly uniform in size, with spines or hairs which are longer on the apical segment and absent on the basal. Length of antennal segments: (1) 0.016 mm., (2) 0.016 mm., (3) 0.049 mm., (4) 0.049 mm., (5) 0.05 mm., (6) 0.066 mm., (7) 0.049 mm., (8) 0.032 mm., (9) 0.041 mm., (10) 0.04 mm. Width of segments: (1) 0.024 mm., (2) 0.016 mm., (3) 0.014 mm., (4) 0.016 mm., (5) 0.018 mm., (6) 0.016 mm., (7) 0.016 mm., (8) 0.018 mm., (9) 0.018 mm., (10) 0.012 mm. *Abdomen* eight-segmented, having at the caudal end a long spikelike appendage, termed style or genital spike (see Pl. XIX, fig. 2), about 0.215 mm. long and 0.033 mm. wide at base, tapering to a sharp point grooved below, forming a sheath for the penis, this sheath bearing four hairs or bristles at base, two on the dorsum and two stronger, ventrad. *Thorax*, general color pale clay-yellow, with edge of the thoracic shield darker, approaching cadmium-yellow; slightly longer than broad, crossed at the central part of dorsum by a heavy pale-brown band about one-half the width of the thorax at point of intersection; cephalic and caudal margins slightly concave, with blunt-shaped ends. *Wings*, length 0.56 mm., width 0.249 mm., covered with numerous spines, colorless, very narrow at base, bearing two main veins, the costal presenting caudal serrations (see Pl. XIX, fig. 4); located on the lateral margin of the metathorax are the "halteres," or "balancers," which hook into the lobes at the base of the wings, giving them additional strength. *Legs* about the same color as body; coxa very broad, stout, wider at base; trochanter nearly rectangular, stout, not so broad as coxa; femur narrower at proximal extremity, growing broader distad; tibia slender, with hairs near distal end; tarsus rather broad at base, gradually tapering toward claw, also with many hairs at distal end; claw broad at base and curved inward. Measurements of left posterior leg, as follows:

	Width.	Length.		Width.	Length.
	<i>Mm.</i>	<i>Mm.</i>		<i>Mm.</i>	<i>Mm.</i>
Coxa.....	0.03	0.046	Tibia.....	0.023	0.08
Trochanter.....	.011	.01	Tarsus.....	.019	.061
Femur.....	.03	.092	Claw.....	.003	.007

PARASITES.

SPECIES PREVIOUSLY RECORDED.

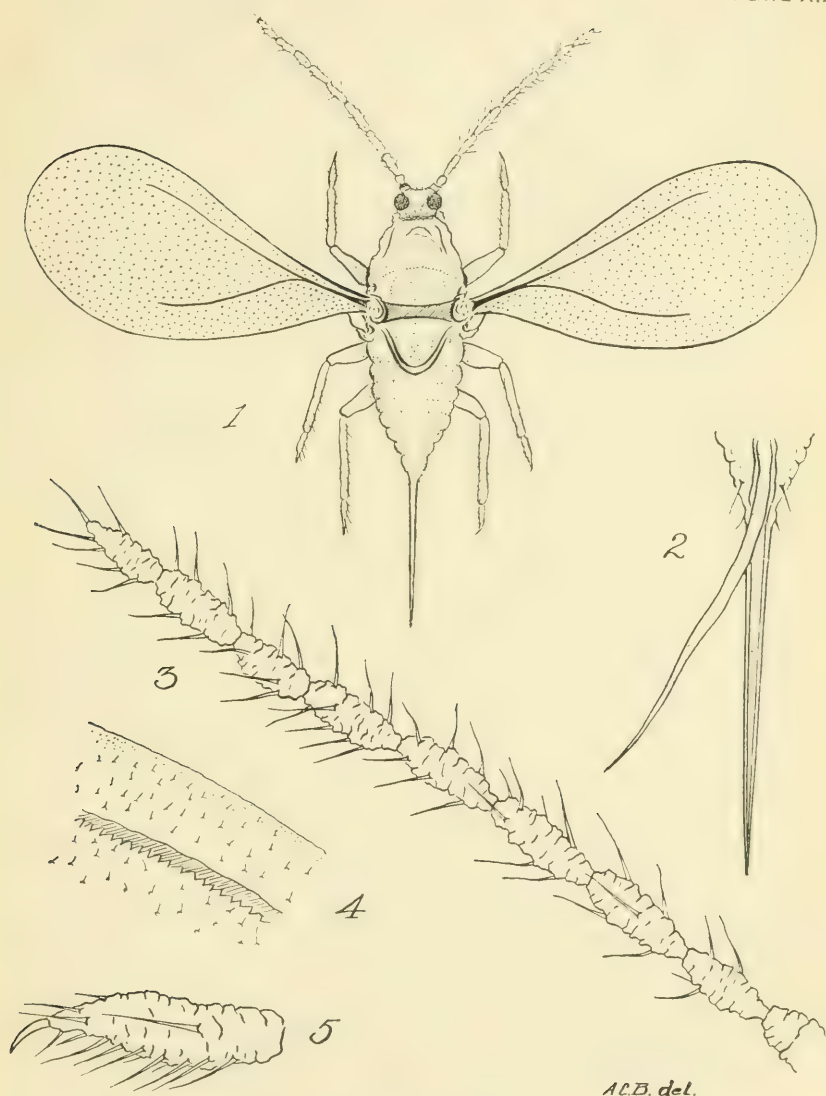
In one publication¹ Miss Mary E. Murtfeldt reports a species of *Centrodora* as being found parasitizing the grape scale.

In another publication² Miss Murtfeldt mentions that the grape scale is preyed upon by mites belonging to the genus *Tyroglyphus*.

In 1888 and 1889 Miss Murtfeldt sent in a few specimens of a parasite which proved to belong to the Chalcididae, subfamily Aphelininae,

¹ 36th Ann. Rept. Hort. Soc. Mo., pp. 118-119, 1893.

² Insect Life, vol. 7, p. 5, 1894.



THE GRAPE SCALE.

Fig. 1.—Adult winged male. Fig. 2.—Genitalia of male. Fig. 3.—Antenna of male. Fig. 4.—Serrations on costal vein. Fig. 5.—Tarsus and claw of male. (Original.)

in which it formed a new genus; it was later described as *Prospaltella murtfeldtii* How. More than a dozen of these little Hymenoptera emerged from the scales on a piece of grape cane about 5 inches long.

SPECIES REARED BY THE WRITER.

On May 20, 1911, the writer examined many female scales and found that about 80 per cent of the insects were parasitized. (See Pl. XVIII, fig. 2.) In some instances the parasites were found under



FIG. 27.—Cage used in rearing parasites of the grape scale. The parasites come to the light and are entrapped in the glass tubes. After model of the California State Board of Horticulture. (Original.)

the exuvia, but generally the parasite had emerged, leaving an exit hole near the central upper part of the scale.

Many grape twigs were placed in a parasite rearing cage, shown in figure 27, and as the parasites emerged they came to the light and were entrapped in the test tubes.

The following species of the parasites reared were determined by Dr. L. O. Howard: *Ablerus clisiocampæ* Ashm., *Physcus varicornis* How., *Azotus marchali* How., *Coccophagus* n. sp., *Aphelinus fuscipennis* How., *Prospaltella murtfeldtii* How., *Ablerus* n. sp., and *Physcus* sp.

Mr. J. C. Crawford determined a parasite reared from this species as belonging to the family Ceraphronidae, but on account of the crushed condition of the insect the species was unrecognizable.

Many of the parasites reared from this scale belonged to the family Mymaridae and were sent to Mr. A. A. Girault for determination; they all proved to be one species, *Signiphora pulchra* Girault.

The following is a complete list of the parasites reared by the writer from the grape scale: *Ablerus elisiocampæ* Ashm.; *Ablerus* n. sp., *Phycus varicornis* How., *Phycus* sp., *Azotus marchali* How., *Coccophagus* n. sp., *Aphelinus fuscipennis* How., *Centrodora* sp., *Prosopaltella murtfeldtii* How., *Signiphora pulchra* Girault. The scale was also found infested with the predaceous mite *Tyroglyphus* sp.

PREVENTIVES AND REMEDIES.

LIME-SULPHUR WASH.

The lime-sulphur spray mixture is one of the most important insecticides used by the fruit grower in combating scale insects. It is prepared as follows:

FORMULA.

Stone lime.....	pounds..	20
Sulphur (flowers or flour).....	do....	15
Water to make.....	gallons..	50

First heat in a kettle or caldron about one-third the quantity of water required. When the water is hot, add all the lime and immediately add all the sulphur. The latter, however, should have been previously put through a fine-mesh sieve in order to eliminate the hard lumps, and have been mixed into a stiff paste with water. When the lime has slaked, about another one-third of the water should be added and the cooking should continue for from 40 minutes to 1 hour; then the remainder of the water should be added. The solution should always be strained in order to eliminate the lumps and lessen the danger of clogging the nozzles.

SELF-BOILED LIME-SULPHUR WASH.

The self-boiled lime-sulphur mixture is made by the heat generated in slaking the lime, and may be used for spraying infested vines in foliage.

FORMULA.

Stone lime.....	pounds..	8
Sulphur (flowers or flour).....	do....	8
Water to make.....	gallons..	50

Place the lime in a 50-gallon barrel, add 2 or 3 gallons of cold water, then add the sulphur, which should have been previously screened. Stir the mixture occasionally and add more water if the solution

becomes too thick. As soon as the lime has completely slaked add cold water to make the 50 gallons. Strain the liquid before pouring it into the spray tank.

OTHER SPRAYS.

In addition to the lime-sulphur sprays other contact insecticides may be employed, as whale-oil-soap solution, kerosene or crude petroleum emulsion, etc. For winter treatment, however, probably nothing would be better than the strong lime-sulphur wash above mentioned. For some unexplained reason, sulphur sprays when used on grapes in foliage produce harmful effects in checking the growth of the foliage. When it is desired to treat the grape scale during the period of foliage of the vines, the use of whale-oil soap at the rate of 1 pound to 3 or 4 gallons of water, or of 10 to 12 per cent kerosene emulsion, may be advisable.

There are on the market certain proprietary sprays, known as miscible oils, and also concentrated lime-sulphur solutions. These have only to be diluted with water and are ready for use. Where but a small amount of spraying is to be done, their employment will often be found advantageous in preference to making washes at home.

WHEN TO SPRAY.

Summer spraying.—The larvæ appear in the vicinity of Washington D. C., about the middle of May, and it is necessary to give the first application about one week after their first appearance. Of course south of this locality one would expect them to appear a few days earlier and north of it a few days later. Close examination has shown that the larvæ are constantly hatching and crawling over the plant during a period of about two months, each "louse" settling down, however, within about 48 hours. On May 5, 1910, some grapevines which were badly infested with this insect were sprayed with self-boiled lime-sulphur wash, only one application being made, and upon a later examination only a few living insects were found. On account of the habit of the young "lice" of settling under the shreds of dead bark it is very difficult to apply the liquid so that it will come into contact with all the insects. This makes it advisable to give a second and sometimes a third application.

Winter spraying.—As the foliage is very susceptible to burning, the stronger caustic sprays must be applied during the dormant period of the plants. The concentrated lime-sulphur wash and strong whale-oil soap wash, as well as strong kerosene emulsion, are used during this season of the year. As the winter is passed by the insects under the protective scale covering, an application, in order to be effective, must be very thoroughly made.

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INDEX.

	Page.
<i>Ablerus clisiocampæ</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
n. sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
<i>Ægeria opalescens</i> = <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	66
original description.....	78
<i>Agropyron repens</i> , food plant of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
Almond root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
<i>Ampelopsis</i> sp., food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
Ant, enemy of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	83
<i>Aphelinus fuscipennis</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120
parasite of <i>Aspidiotus uvæ</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
<i>Aphis prunicola</i> , the black peach aphid.....	104
Apple, food plant of codling moth.....	13-32
nursery stock, injury by <i>Tarsonemus waiti</i>	108
root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
tree borers, bibliographic reference.....	122
Apricot, food plant of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67, 68
root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
Arsenate of lead against codling moth.....	42, 51
and Bordeaux mixture against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	59-64
self-boiled lime-sulphur wash against peach and plum slug.....	102
Bordeaux mixture, and molasses against rose-chafer.....	59, 60, 62-63
Arsenicals against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	58-63
sweetened, against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	62-63
Arsenite of lime and molasses against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	62
Bordeaux mixture, and molasses against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	62
injury to grapevines by heavy applications.....	59
<i>Aspidiotus comstocki</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
<i>perniciosus</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
the San Jose scale.....	116
(<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i> , adult female, description.....	117-118
winged male, description.....	118
bibliography.....	122-124
description.....	117-118
distribution.....	115-116
food plants.....	115-116
habits.....	116-117
natural history.....	116-117
parasites.....	118-120
preventives.....	120-121
remedies.....	120-121
scale of female, description.....	117
male, description.....	117
"Avoines en cigares" injury to oats caused by <i>Tarsonemus spirifex</i>	111
<i>Azotus marchali</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	119, 120

	Page.
Bagworm, bibliographic reference.....	122
Barley, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifer</i>	111
"Bianchella" malady to rice produced by <i>Tarsonemus oryzae</i>	111
Bisulphid of carbon treatment against California peach borer.....	87
Black-rot fungus of grapevines, control by Bordeaux mixture.....	62
Bordeaux mixture and arsenate of lead against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	59-64
arsenate of lead, and molasses against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	59, 60, 62-63
arsenite of lime, and molasses against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	62
in control of black-rot fungus of grapevine.....	62
Cage for rearing <i>Caliroa (Eriocampoides) amygdalina</i>	93-94
<i>Caliroa (Eriocampoides) amygdalina</i> , adult, life history.....	94-95
damage, extent.....	100
developmental period, total.....	100
egg, life history.....	96
injury to peach and plum trees.....	91, 100
larva, life history.....	96-98
life history.....	94-100
natural enemies.....	100-102
observations thereon in 1910.....	92-94
oviposition.....	94-95
prepupa, life history.....	98-99
pupa, life history.....	99
remedies.....	102
(<i>Selandria</i>) <i>obsoletum</i> , name used for <i>Caliroa (Eriocampoides) amygdalina</i>	91
Carabid larvæ, enemies of codling moth.....	32
<i>Carpocapsa pomonella</i> . (See Codling moth.)	
<i>Carya alba</i> , food plant of <i>Aspidiotus (Diaspidiotus) uvæ</i>	116
sp., food plant of <i>Aspidiotus (Diaspidiotus) uvæ</i>	116
Cement, hydraulic, ineffective against California peach borer.....	87
<i>Centrodora</i> sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus (Diaspidiotus) uvæ</i>	118-120
<i>Cerasus demissa</i> , native food plant of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67
<i>Ceresa bubalus</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
Cherry, food plant of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67, 68
root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
<i>Chionaspis furfurus</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Chokecherry, western. (See <i>Cerasus demissa</i> .)	
Chrysanthemum, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus pallidus</i>	112
Coal tar, lime, and whale-oil soap against California peach borer.....	87
<i>Coccophagus</i> n. sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus (Diaspidiotus) uvæ</i>	119, 120
Codling moth in California.....	13-51
band records for 1909 and 1910.....	27-31
control on pears.....	32-51
commercial results from spraying..	41-51
Contra Costa County, 1909.....	41-44
1910.....	44-49
effect of sprays on places of entrance by larvæ.....	33-41
profits from spraying.....	43-44, 49
Solano County, 1910.....	49-51
eggs, first brood.....	18-21
second brood.....	24

	Page.
Codling moth in California, first brood eggs, incubation period.....	19-20
time of oviposition.....	18-19
larvæ, development in fruit.....	20-21
larval life in cocoon.....	21
time of hatching.....	20
moths.....	23-24
pupæ, length of period.....	21-23
time of pupation.....	21
generation.....	18-24
larvæ, first brood.....	20-21
overwintering.....	14
second brood.....	25-26
life cycle of first generation.....	24
history notes.....	14-32
review for 1909 and 1910.....	26-31
moths, first brood.....	23-24
spring brood.....	17-18
natural enemies.....	32
overwintering larvæ.....	14
parasites.....	32
predaceous enemies.....	32
pupæ, first brood.....	21-23
spring brood.....	14-16
recommendations for control.....	51
second brood eggs, incubation period.....	24
time of oviposition.....	24
larvæ, development in relation to fruit.....	25
life in fruit.....	25-26
overwintering.....	26
time of hatching.....	25
generation.....	24-26
spring brood of moths.....	17-18
pupæ.....	14-16
length of period.....	15-16
summary.....	51
Cultural methods against grape leafhopper.....	7-8
rose-chaffer.....	64
Cushman, R. A., paper, "Notes on the Peach and Plum Slug (<i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i>)".....	91-102
<i>Diaspis rosæ</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Dipterous larva, enemy of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	83
<i>Eriocampoides limacina</i> , the pear slug, resemblance of larva of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i> thereto.....	91
<i>Eulabis rufipes</i> , enemy of codling moth.....	32
<i>Euthrips tritici</i> (see also <i>Thrips tritici</i>). in tender growing tips of peach and other vegetation.....	108
<i>Festuca rubra</i> , food plant of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
<i>Fidia viticida</i> . (See Grape rootworm.)	
Foster, S. W., paper, "Life History of the Codling Moth and its Control on Pears in California".....	13-51
"Fruitlet core rot" of pineapples, dissemination by <i>Tarsonemus ananas</i>	112
Fungous diseases of grape, control by spraying.....	63

	Page.
Glue and Paris green washes ineffective against California peach borer, injurious to trees.....	87
"Gophers," injury to root stocks of fruit trees in California.....	68
Grape (<i>see also</i> <i>Vitis</i>).	
berry moth, control by spraying.....	63
European. (See <i>Vitis vinifera</i> .)	
food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	115-124
grape leafhopper (<i>Typhlocyba comes</i>).....	1-12
rose-chafer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>).....	53-64
leafhopper. (See Leafhopper, grape.)	
rootworm, control by spraying.....	63
scale, control by spraying.....	120-121
spraying in summer.....	121
winter.....	121
Grapes, wild. (See <i>Vitis</i> spp.)	
Grasses, food plants of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
perhaps food plants of <i>Tarsonemus spirifex</i>	111
silver-top disease caused by <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
<i>Hæmatobia serrata</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
= <i>Lyperosia irritans</i>	122
Handpicking rose-chafer beetles in vineyards.....	57-58
<i>Hyperallus caliroæ</i> , parasite of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	101-102
Johnson, Fred, paper, "Spraying Experiments Against the Grape Leafhopper in the Lake Erie Valley".....	1-12
"Vineyard Spraying Experiments Against the Rose-chafer in the Lake Erie Valley".....	53-64
Kerosene (<i>see also</i> Petroleum and Oil).	
emulsion against grape scale.....	121
peach bud mite.....	114
Ladybird, twice-stabbed, enemy of <i>Aspidiotus uvæ</i> , bibliographic reference...	122
Leafhopper, grape, adult, life history.....	6-7
adults, emergence in spring.....	4-5
not effectively controlled by sprays.....	8
characteristics.....	2-3
control by spray applications against nymphs.....	8-12
cost of spray application in the Lake Erie Valley.....	10-11
egg stage, life history.....	5
emergence of adults in spring.....	4-5
habits.....	2-3
hibernation.....	3-4
injuries in the Lake Erie Valley.....	1-2
in the Lake Erie Valley, conclusion.....	12
spraying experiments.....	1-12
life history.....	3-7
nymphal stages, life history.....	6
nymphs, control by spray applications.....	8-12
remedial measures.....	7-12
<i>Lecanium nigrofasciatum</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Lime, coal tar, and whale-oil soap against California peach borer.....	87
crude oil wash against California peach borer.....	86
oil mixture as preventive against California peach borer.....	83-85
sulphur salt mixture against California peach borer.....	86
wash against grape scale.....	120, 121

	Page.
Lime-sulphur wash against peach bud mite	113, 114
concentrated, against grape scale.....	121
self-boiled, against grape scale.....	120-121
and arsenate of lead against peach and plum slug.....	102
London purple, injury to grapevines by heavy applications.....	59
<i>Loxostege maculuræ</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
<i>Lygus pratensis</i> , injury to peach nursery stock attributed thereto.....	105
<i>Lyperosia irritans</i> , bibliographic reference.....	122
<i>Macroductylus subspinosus</i> . (See Rose-chafer.)	
Mango, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus latus</i>	112
injury by <i>Tarsonemus latus</i>	112
Mite enemy of <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	83
peach bud. (See <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i> .)	
Molasses and arsenite of lime against rose-chafer in vineyards.....	62
arsenate of lead, and Bordeaux mixture against rose-chafer in vine- yards	59, 60, 62-63
Bordeaux mixture, and arsenite of lime against rose-chafer in vine- yards.....	62
Moulton, Dudley, paper, "The California Peach Borer (<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i> Hy. Edw.)".....	65-89
"Mounding" possibly not so effective against California peach borer as against eastern species.....	87
Oats, "avoines en cigares" affection caused by <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	111
food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifer</i>	111
Oil (see also Kerosene and Petroleum).	
and lime mixture as preventive against California peach borer.....	83-85
crude, and lime against California peach borer.....	86
as preventive against California peach borer.....	84-85
miscible, against grape scale.....	121
peach bud mite.....	113
Paints and rosin ineffective against California peach borer, injurious to trees..	87
Paris green, injury to grapevines by heavy applications.....	59
Peach and plum sawfly. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
slug. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
aphis, black. (See <i>Aphis prunicola</i> .)	
borer. (See <i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i> .)	
California. (See <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i> .)	
bud mite. (See <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i> .)	
food plant of <i>Aphis prunicola</i>	104
<i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	91-102
<i>Euthrips tritici</i>	108
<i>Phyllocoptes cornutus</i>	104
<i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i>	65-66
<i>opalescens</i>	65-89
<i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	103-111
reported food plant of <i>Lygus pratensis</i>	105
<i>Thrips tritici</i>	105
root stocks, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
"stop-back" disease the work of <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	107
thrips. (See <i>Thrips tritici</i> .)	
Pear, calyx lobes with reference to spraying against codling moth.....	32-33
food plant of codling moth.....	13-51

	Page.
Pear slug. (See <i>Eriocampoides limacina</i> .)	
Petroleum. (See also Kerosene and Oil.)	
emulsion, crude, against grape scale.....	121
<i>Phleum pratense</i> , food plant of <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
<i>Phyllocoptes cornutus</i> , confusion with <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	104
injury to peach leaves.....	104
<i>Physecus</i> sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uva</i>	119, 120
<i>varicornis</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uva</i>	119, 120
Pineapple disease, "fruitlet core rot," dissemination by <i>Tarsonemus ananas</i> ...	112
food plant of <i>Tarsonemus ananas</i>	112
<i>Platanus occidentalis</i> , food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uva</i>	116
sp., food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uva</i>	116
Plum and peach sawfly. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
slug. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
food plant of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	91-102
<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	67, 68
root stocks, native, relative susceptibility to <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
wild, Myrobalan, or cherry. (See <i>Prunus cerasifera</i> .)	
<i>Polychrosis viteana</i> . (See Grape-berry moth.)	
<i>Prospalta murtfeldtii</i> , bibliographic references.....	122
<i>Prospaltella murtfeldtii</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uva</i>	119, 120
Pruning against peach bud mite.....	113-114
<i>Prunus cerasifera</i> root stocks almost exempt from injury by <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	68
<i>Pulvinaria innumerabilis</i> , bibliographic reference.....	123
Quaintance, A. L., paper, "Notes on the Peach Bud Mite, an Enemy of Peach Nursery Stock (<i>Tarsonemus waitei</i> Banks, MSS)".....	103-114
Rearing <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i> , cage.....	93-94
Rice, "bianchella" malady produced by <i>Tarsonemus oryzae</i>	111
food plant of <i>Tarsonemus oryzae</i>	111
Rose bug, colloquial name for rose-chafer (<i>Macrodactylus subspinosus</i>).....	56
chafer difficulties in control.....	53
habits of adult in vineyards.....	54-56
larva in vineyards.....	56-57
in Lake Erie Valley, injury to vineyards.....	53
time to make spray applications in vineyards.....	63-64
vineyard spraying experiments against it....	53-64
vineyards, control by arsenicals.....	58-64
cleaning up breeding places.....	64
handpicking.....	57-58
summary.....	64
oviposition.....	56
remedial measures in vineyards.....	57-64
Rosin and paints ineffective against California peach borer, injurious to trees..	87
Rye, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifer</i>	111
<i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i> , comparison with <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	65-66, 78
the peach borer of the Eastern United States.....	65-66
<i>opalescens</i> , adult.....	77-82
description, original, and subsequent notes.....	78
bibliography.....	88-89
broods, number, as shown by "worming" records.....	71-73
cocoon, formation, position, and structure.....	74-75
comparison with <i>Sanninoidea exitiosa</i>	65-66, 78

	Page.
<i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i> , control methods.....	83-88
distribution.....	66-68
egg, description.....	68
development and hatching.....	68-69
fertility.....	69
feeding habits of larvæ.....	69-71, 74
of moths.....	80
flight.....	80
food plants, native.....	67
fruit budding and grafting stocks resistant to attack...	68
history in relation to fruit growing in Santa Clara Valley...	67
in California, limits of areas in which injury occurs....	67-68
Santa Clara Valley, history.....	67
injury, character.....	71
to peach orchards in Santa Clara Valley.....	65
larva, character of injury.....	71
feeding habits within burrow.....	74
newly hatched, feeding habits.....	69-70
period when entering trees.....	71
larval period, length, as shown by "worming" records...	71-73
mating.....	80, 82
moths, earliest, maximum, and latest appearances....	79
habits of those newly emerged.....	77-78
length of life.....	82
natural enemies.....	83
oviposition.....	80-82
preventives, experiments therewith.....	83-85
pupa.....	74-77
description.....	75
length of period.....	75-77
pupæ, earliest, maximum, and latest appearance.....	77
recommendations for control.....	88
remedies against eastern peach borer not effective....	87
soil conditions as bearing on infestation.....	68
summary.....	88
varieties of cultivated fruits attacked.....	68
washes as protection after "worming," formulas.....	86-87
"worming" and applying washes in control.....	85-87
records.....	71-73
<i>pacifica</i> = <i>Sanninoidea opalescens</i>	66
Sasscer, E. R., description of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	117-118
Sawfly, peach and plum. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
Scale, grape. (See <i>Aspidiotus</i> [<i>Diaspidiotus</i>] <i>uvæ</i> .)	
San Jose. (See <i>Aspidiotus perniciosus</i> .)	
"Set-back" of peach. (See "Stop-back.")	
<i>Signiphora pulchra</i> , parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	120
Silver-top disease of grasses caused by <i>Tarsonemus culmicolus</i>	112
Slug, peach and plum. (See <i>Caliroa</i> [<i>Eriocampoides</i>] <i>amygdalina</i> .)	
pear. (See <i>Eriocampoides limacina</i> .)	
Soap solution, whale-oil, against grape scale.....	121
peach bud mite.....	114
coal tar, and lime against California peach borer.....	87

	Page.
<i>Stiretrus anchorago</i> , enemy of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	100
<i>pulchella</i> = <i>Stiretrus anchorago</i>	100
"Stop-back" disease of peach, the work of <i>Tarsonemus waitei</i>	107
Sugar cane, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus bancrofti</i> and another species of <i>Tarsonemus</i>	112
injury by <i>Tarsonemus bancrofti</i> and another species of <i>Tarsonemus</i>	112
<i>Tarsonemus ananas</i> , injury to pineapples.....	112
<i>bancrofti</i> , injury to sugar cane.....	112
<i>culmicolus</i> , injury to grasses.....	112
<i>latus</i> , injury to mango.....	112
<i>oryzae</i> , injury to rice.....	111
<i>pallidus</i> on chrysanthemum.....	112
sp., injury to sugar cane.....	112
<i>spirifex</i> , injury to oats, wheat, barley, and rye.....	111
<i>waitei</i>	103-114
economic importance.....	106-110
habits.....	110
history.....	103-106
injury to peach, nature.....	109-110
natural history.....	110
relationship, systematic, and other species.....	111-112
remedial considerations.....	113-114
<i>Thrips tritici</i> (see also <i>Euthrips tritici</i>). injury to peach attributed thereto.....	105
Tobacco extract, blackleaf, against grape leafhopper.....	8-12
"40," against grape leafhopper.....	9
<i>Trichogramma minutum</i> , parasite of <i>Caliroa</i> (<i>Eriocampoides</i>) <i>amygdalina</i>	100-101
<i>Typhlocyba comes</i> . (See Leafhopper, grape.) var. <i>coloradensis</i> , adult, figure.....	1
<i>Tyroglyphus</i> sp., parasite of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	118, 120
<i>Vitis</i> (see also Grape). spp., food plants of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
<i>vinifera</i> , food plant of <i>Aspidiotus</i> (<i>Diaspidiotus</i>) <i>uvæ</i>	116
Wheat, food plant of <i>Tarsonemus spirifex</i>	111
"Worming" and applying washes against California peach borer.....	85-87
records for California peach borer.....	71-73
Wrappings of paper, etc., not successfully used against California peach borer.....	87
Zimmer, James F., paper, "The Grape Scale (<i>Aspidiotus</i> [<i>Diaspidiotus</i>] <i>uvæ</i> Comst.)".....	115-124

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